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ADDRESSES AND PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
OF THE UNITED STATES

Addresses and Proceedings

OF THE

FIFTY-SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING

HELD AT

PITTSBURGH, PENNSYLVANIA

JUNE 29-JULY 6

1918

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NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

1857–1870

THE NATIONAL TEACHERS ASSOCIATON

Organized August 26, 1857, at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

PURPOSE—*To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States.*

The name of the association was changed at Cleveland, Ohio, on August 15, 1870, to the "National Educational Association."

1870–1907

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

Incorporated under the laws of the District of Columbia, February 24, 1886, under the name, "National Education Association," which was changed to "National Educational Association," by certificate filed November 6, 1886.

1907–

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

Incorporated under a special act of Congress, approved June 30, 1906, to succeed the "National Educational Association." The charter was accepted and by-laws were adopted at the Fiftieth Anniversary Convention held July 10, 1907, at Los Angeles, California.

ACT OF INCORPORATION

AN ACT TO INCORPORATE THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled:

SECTION 1. That the following named persons, who are now officers and directors and trustees of the National Educational Association, a corporation organized in the year eighteen hundred and eight-six, under the Act of General Incorporation of the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, viz.: Nathan C. Schaeffer, *Eliphalet Oram Lyte, *John W. Lansinger, of Pennsylvania; Isaac W. Hill, of Alabama; Arthur J. Matthews, of Arizona; John H. Hinemon, George B. Cook, of Arkansas; Joseph O'Connor, *Josiah L. Pickard, Arthur H. Chamberlain, of California; Aaron Gove, *Ezekiel H. Cook, Lewis C. Greenlee, of Colorado; Charles H. Keyes, of Connecticut; *George W. Twitmyer of Delaware; *J. Ormond Wilson, *William T. Harris, Alexander T. Stuart, of the District

* Deceased.

of Columbia; Clem Hampton, of Florida; William M. Slaton, of Georgia; *Frances Mann, of Idaho; J. Stanley Brown, *Albert G. Lane, Charles I. Parker, John W. Cook, *Joshua Pike, Albert R. Taylor, *Joseph A. Mercer, of Illinois; *Nebraska Cropsey, Thomas A. Mott, of Indiana; John D. Benedict, of Indian Territory; John F. Riggs, Ashley V. Storm, of Iowa; John W. Spindler, Jasper N. Wilkinson, A. V. Jewett, *Luther D. Whittemore, of Kansas; William Henry Bartholomew, of Kentucky; *Warren Easton, of Louisiana; *John S. Locke, of Maine; M. Bates Stephens, of Maryland; Charles W. Eliot, *Mary H. Hunt, Henry T. Bailey, of Massachusetts; Hugh A. Graham, Charles G. White, William H. Elson, of Michigan; *William F. Phelps, *Irwin Shepard, John A. Cranston, of Minnesota; Robert B. Fulton, of Mississippi; *F. Louis Soldan, *James M. Greenwood, William J. Hawkins, of Missouri; *Oscar J. Craig, of Montana; George L. Towne, of Nebraska; *Joseph E. Stubbs, of Nevada; James E. Klock, of New Hampshire; James M. Green, John Enright, of New Jersey; *Charles M. Light, of New Mexico; *James H. Canfield, Nicholas Murray Butler, William H. Maxwell, Charles R. Skinner, *Albert P. Marble, James C. Byrnes, of New York; James Y. Joyner, Julius Isaac Foust, of North Carolina; *Pitt Gordon Knowlton, of North Dakota; Oscar T. Corson, Jacob A. Shawan, Wells L. Griswold, of Ohio; Edgar S. Vaught, Andrew R. Hickham, of Oklahoma; *Charles Carroll Stratton, Edwin D. Ressler, of Oregon; Thomas W. Bicknell, Walter Ballou Jacobs, of Rhode Island; David B. Johnson, Robert P. Pell, of South Carolina; Moritz Adelbert Lange, of South Dakota; *Eugene F. Turner, of Tennessee; Lloyd E. Wolfe, of Texas; David H. Christensen, of Utah; *Henry O. Wheeler, Isaac Thomas, of Vermont; Joseph L. Jarman, of Virginia; Edward T. Mathes, of Washington; T. Marcellus Marshall, Lucy Robinson, of West Virginia; Lorenzo D. Harvey, of Wisconsin; *Thomas T. Tynan, of Wyoming; Cassia Patton, of Alaska; Frank H. Ball, of Porto Rico; Arthur F. Griffiths, of Hawaii; C. H. Maxson, of the Philippine Islands, and such other persons as now are or may hereafter be associated with them as officers or members of said Association, are hereby incorporated and declared to be a body corporate of the District of Columbia by the name of the "National Education Association of the United States," and by that name shall be known and have perpetual succession with the powers, limitations, and restrictions herein contained.

SEC. 2. That the purpose and object of the said corporation shall be to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of education in the United States. This corporation shall include the National Council of Education and the following departments, and such others as may hereafter be created by organization or consolidation, to wit: the Departments, first, of Superintendence; second, of Normal Schools; third, of Elementary Education; fourth, of Higher Education; fifth, of Manual Training; sixth, of Art Education; seventh, of Kindergarten Education; eighth, of Music Education; ninth, of Secondary Education; tenth, of Business Education; eleventh, of Child Study; twelfth, of Physical Education; thirteenth, of Natural Science Instruction; fourteenth, of School Administration; fifteenth, the Library Department; sixteenth, of Special Education; seventeenth, of Indian Education; the powers and duties and the number and names of these departments and of the National Council of Education may be changed or abolished at the pleasure of the corporation, as provided in its by-laws.

SEC. 3. That the said corporation shall further have power to have and to use a common seal, and to alter and change the same at its pleasure; to sue or to be sued in any court of the United States, or other court of competent jurisdiction; to make by-laws not inconsistent with the provisions of this act or of the Constitution of the United States; to take or receive, whether by gift, grant, devise, bequest, or purchase, any real or personal estate, and to hold, grant, convey, hire, or lease the same for the purposes of its incorporation; and to accept and administer any trust of real or personal estate for any educational purpose within the objects of the corporation.

* Deceased.

SEC. 4. That all real property of the corporation within the District of Columbia, which shall be used by the corporation for the educational or other purposes of the corporation as aforesaid, other than the purposes of producing income, and all personal property and funds of the corporation held, used, or invested for educational purposes aforesaid, or to produce income to be used for such purposes, shall be exempt from taxation; *provided*, however, That this exemption shall not apply to any property of the corporation which shall not be used for, or the income of which shall not be applied to, the educational purposes of the corporation; and, *provided further*, That the corporation shall annually file, with the Commissioner of Education of the United States, a report in writing, stating in detail the property, real and personal, held by the corporation, and the expenditure or other use or disposition of the same, or the income thereof, during the preceding year.

SEC. 5. That the membership of the said corporation shall consist of three classes of members—viz., active, associate, and corresponding—whose qualifications, terms of membership, rights, and obligations shall be prescribed by the by-laws of the corporation.

SEC. 6. That the officers of the said corporation shall be a President, twelve Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, a Board of Directors, an Executive Committee, and a Board of Trustees.

The Board of Directors shall consist of the President, the First Vice-President, the Secretary, the Treasurer, the chairman of the Board of Trustees, and one additional member from each state, territory, or district, to be elected by the active members for the term of one year, or until their successors are chosen, and of all life directors of the National Educational Association. The United States Commissioner of Education, and all former Presidents of the said Association now living, and all future Presidents of the Association hereby incorporated, at the close of their respective terms of office, shall be members of the Board of Directors for life. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body; shall have in charge the general interests of the corporation, excepting those herein intrusted to the Board of Trustees; and shall possess such other powers as shall be conferred upon them by the by-laws of the corporation.

The Executive Committee shall consist of five members, as follows: the President of the Association, the First Vice-President, the Treasurer, the Chairman of the Board of Trustees, and a member of the Association, to be chosen annually by the Board of Directors, to serve one year. The said committee shall have authority to represent, and to act for the Board of Directors in the intervals between the meetings of that body, to the extent of carrying out the legislation adopted by the Board of Directors under general directions as may be given by said board.

The Board of Trustees shall consist of four members, elected by the Board of Directors for the term of four years, and the President of the Association, who shall be a member *ex officio* during his term of office. At the first meeting of the Board of Directors, held during the annual meeting of the Association at which they were elected, they shall elect one trustee for the term of four years. All vacancies occurring in said Board of Trustees, whether by resignation or otherwise, shall be filled by the Board of Directors for the unexpired term; and the absence of a trustee from two successive annual meetings of the board shall forfeit his membership.

SEC. 7. That the invested fund now known as the "Permanent Fund of the National Educational Association," when transferred to the corporation hereby created, shall be held by such corporation as a Permanent Fund and shall be in charge of the Board of Trustees, who shall provide for the safekeeping and investment of such fund, and of all other funds which the corporation may receive by donation, bequest, or devise. No part of the principal of such Permanent Fund or its accretions shall be expended, except by a two-thirds vote of the active members of the Association present at any annual meeting, upon the recommendation of the Board of Trustees, after such recommendation has been approved by vote of the Board of Directors, and after printed notice of the proposed expenditure has been mailed to all active members of the Association. The income of the

Permanent Fund shall be used only to meet the cost of maintaining the organization of the Association and of publishing its annual volume of *Proceedings*, unless the terms of the donation, bequest, or devise shall otherwise specify, or the Board of Directors shall otherwise order. It shall also be the duty of the Board of Trustees to issue orders on the Treasurer for the payment of all bills approved by the Board of Directors, or by the President and Secretary of the Association acting under the authority of the Board of Directors. When practicable, the Board of Trustees shall invest, as part of the Permanent Fund, all surplus funds exceeding five hundred dollars that shall remain in the hands of the Treasurer after paying the expenses of the Association for the previous year, and providing for the fixed expenses and for all appropriations made by the Board of Directors for the ensuing year.

The Board of Trustees shall elect the Secretary of the Association, who shall also be secretary of the Executive Committee, and shall fix the compensation and the term of his office for a period not to exceed four years.

SEC. 8. That the principal office of the said corporation shall be in the city of Washington, District of Columbia; *provided*, That the meetings of the corporation, its officers, committees, and departments, may be held, and that its business may be transacted, and an office or offices may be maintained, elsewhere, within the United States, as may be determined, by the Board of Directors, or otherwise in accordance with the by-laws.

SEC. 9. That the charter, constitution, and by-laws of the National Educational Association shall continue in full force and effect until the charter granted by this act shall be accepted by such Association at the next annual meeting of the Association, and until new by-laws shall be adopted; and that the present officers, directors, and trustees of said Association shall continue to hold office and perform their respective duties as such until the expiration of terms for which they were severally elected or appointed, and until their successors are elected. That at such annual meeting the active members of the National Educational Association, then present, may organize and proceed to accept the charter granted by this act and adopt by-laws, to elect officers to succeed those whose terms have expired or are about to expire, and generally to organize the "National Education Association of the United States"; and that the Board of Trustees of the corporation hereby incorporated shall thereupon, if the charter granted by this act be accepted, receive, take over, and enter into possession, custody, and management of all property, real and personal, of the corporation heretofore known as the National Educational Association, incorporated as aforesaid, under the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia and all its rights, contracts, claims, and property of every kind and nature whatsoever, and the several officers, directors, and trustees of such last-named Association, or any other person having charge of any of the securities, funds, books, or property thereof, real or personal, shall on demand deliver the same to the proper officers, directors, or trustees of the corporation hereby created. *Provided*, That a verified certificate executed by the presiding officer and secretary of such annual meeting, showing the acceptance of the charter granted by this act by the National Educational Association, shall be legal evidence of the fact, when filed with the Recorder of Deeds of the District of Columbia; and, *provided further*, That in the event of the failure of the Association to accept the charter granted by this act at said annual meeting then the charter of the National Educational Association and its corporate existence shall be and are hereby extended until the thirty-first day of July, nineteen hundred and eight, and at any time before said date its charter may be extended in the manner and form provided by the general corporation law of the District of Columbia.

SEC. 10. That the rights of creditors of the said existing corporation, known as the National Educational Association, shall not in any manner be impaired by the passage of this act, or the transfer of the property heretofore mentioned, nor shall any liability or obligation, or the payment of any sum due or to become due, or any claim or demand, in any manner, or for any cause existing against the said existing corporation, be released or impaired; and the corporation hereby incorporated is declared to succeed to the obli-

gations and liabilities, and to be held liable to pay and discharge all of the debts, liabilities, and contracts of the said corporation so existing, to the same effect as if such new corporation had itself incurred the obligation or liability to pay such debt or damages, and no action or proceeding before any court or tribunal shall be deemed to have abated or been discontinued by reason of this act.

SEC. 11. That Congress may from time to time alter, repeal, or modify this act of incorporation, but no contract or individual right made or acquired shall thereby be divested or impaired.

Approved June 30, 1906.

Accepted and adopted as the constitution of the National Education Association of the United States by the active members of the National Educational Association in annual session at Los Angeles, California, July 10, 1907.

BY-LAWS

(Amended at meeting of active members held in New York City, July 7, 1916)

ARTICLE I—MEMBERSHIP

SECTION 1. Teachers, others actively engaged in educational work, and educational institutions as defined in Section 2, may become active members of the National Education Association of the United States upon the payment of an enrolment fee of two dollars and the annual dues for the current year.

SEC. 2. Educational institutions shall include schools, school boards, library boards, educational publishers, and such clubs and similar organizations as are distinctly educational or have educational departments properly organized with a definite membership.

SEC. 3. Educational institutions as defined in Section 2 may be enroled as active members and represented by any person regularly connected with or a member of the institution, and such representative may exercise all the rights and enjoy all the privileges of active membership, including the right to vote at business meetings; *provided*, That such representative presents a certificate showing that the person named therein has been regularly elected as such representative of the faculty or membership of such institution; but no person shall under any circumstances have the right to cast more than one vote.

SEC. 4. The annual dues of active members are two dollars, which shall be paid at the time of the annual meeting of the Association, or shall be sent to the Secretary before November 1 of each year. An active member may discontinue his membership by giving written notice to the Secretary before November 1. An active member forfeits his membership by being two years in arrears. Those who have forfeited or discontinued their membership may exercise the option of renewing the same by paying all arrears and getting the publisht *Proceedings* of the intervening years, or of becoming members on the same terms as new members. Active members shall be entitled to the publisht *Proceedings* without coupon or other conditions.

SEC. 5. All life-members and life-directors shall be denominated active members, and shall have all the rights and privileges of such members without the payment of the annual dues.

SEC. 6. The right to vote and to hold office in the Association or the departments is open to all active members whose dues are paid; the right to vote and hold office in the Council is open to members of the Council whose dues are paid.

SEC. 7. Any person may become an associate member for one year by paying a membership fee of two dollars.

SEC. 8. Eminent educators not residing in America may be elected, by the Board of Directors, corresponding members. The number of corresponding members shall at no time exceed fifty. They shall not pay any dues.

SEC. 9. The names of active and corresponding members shall be printed in the publisht *Proceedings*, or the *Yearbook* of the Association, with their respective educational titles, offices, and addresses.

ARTICLE II—ELECTION OF OFFICERS

SECTION 1. The President, Vice-Presidents, Treasurer, and Directors of the National Education Association of the United States shall be chosen by the active members of the Association by ballot, at their annual business meeting, a majority of the votes cast being necessary for a choice. They shall continue in office until the close of the annual meeting subsequent to their election, and until their successors are chosen, except as herein provided. The Secretary and the Treasurer shall enter upon their duties at a date which shall be determined by the Board of Trustees and which shall not be later than the first of October and shall continue in office during the terms for which they are separately chosen and until their successors are duly elected.

ARTICLE III—DUTIES OF OFFICERS

SECTION 1. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association, and shall perform the duties usually devolving upon the chief executive of such an association. In his absence, the ranking Vice-President who is present shall preside; and in the absence of all Vice-Presidents a chairman *pro tempore* shall be elected. The President shall prepare the program for the general sessions of the annual meeting of the Association, and, with the approval of the Executive Committee, shall determine the time and place of the general meeting of the Association and of the various departments not definitely fixt by these by-laws, and shall have the power to require such changes to be made in the programs of the Council and the departments as will promote the interest of the annual meeting. The President shall be a member *ex officio* of the Board of Trustees and chairman of the Board of Directors and of the Executive Committee. He shall sign all bills approved for payment by the Board of Directors, and all bills approved or authorized by the Executive Committee between the meetings of the Board of Directors. On the expiration of his term of office as President, he shall become first Vice-President for the ensuing year, and shall be chairman *ex officio* of the Committee on Publication.

SEC. 2. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate record of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors and of the Executive Committee, shall conduct the business of the Association as provided in the articles of incorporation and the by-laws, and, in all matters not definitely prescribed therein, shall be under the direction of the Executive Committee, and, in the absence of direction by the Executive Committee, shall be under the direction of the President, and shall receive or collect all moneys due the Association and pay the same each month to the Treasurer, shall countersign all bills approved for payment by the Board of Directors, or by the Executive Committee in the interval between the meetings of the Board of Directors, or on the approval of the President acting under authority of the Board of Directors, or Executive Committee. The Secretary shall have his records present at all meetings of the active members of the Association, of the Board of Directors, and of the Executive Committee. He shall keep a list of members as required by Section 9 of Article I of these by-laws and shall revise said list annually. He shall be secretary of the Board of Directors, and a member of the Committee on Publication. He shall be the custodian of all the property of the Association not in charge of the Treasurer and the Board of Trustees. He shall give such bond for the faithful performance of his duties as may be required by the Board of Trustees. He shall submit his annual report

to the Executive Committee not later than July 1 prior to the annual meeting of the Association, which report shall be transmitted to the Board of Directors at its annual meeting. At the expiration of his term of office, he shall transfer to his successor all money, books, and other property in his possession belonging to the Association. The Secretary shall not print, publish, nor distribute any official report or other document without the approval of the publication committee.

SEC. 3. The Treasurer shall receive from the Secretary and under the direction of the Board of Trustees shall hold in safekeeping all moneys paid to the Association; shall pay the same only upon the order of the Board of Trustees; shall notify the President of the Association and the Chairman of the Board of Trustees whenever the surplus funds in his possession exceed five hundred dollars; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers for the latter; and said accounts, ending on the thirty-first day of May of each year, he shall render to the Executive Committee not later than July 1, and when approved by said committee they shall be transmitted by the committee to the Board of Directors at the first regular meeting of the board held during the week of the annual meeting and to the active members at their annual business meeting. The Treasurer shall give such bond for the faithful performance of his duties as may be required by the Board of Trustees. At the expiration of his term of office, he shall transfer to his successor all moneys, books, and other property in his possession belonging to the Association.

SEC. 4. The Board of Directors shall elect corresponding members as prescribed by Section 8 of Article I of these by-laws, shall elect members of the National Council of Education as provided in Section 3 of Article IV of these by-laws, shall have power to fill all vacancies in its own body and in the Board of Trustees; shall recommend to the Executive Committee the place for holding the annual meeting of the Association, the Council of Education, and the departments. The Board of Directors shall approve all bills incurred under authority of the Board of Directors, the Executive Committee, or the President and Secretary acting under the authority of the Board of Directors or Executive Committee, shall appropriate from the current funds of the year the amounts of money ordered by the active members at their annual business meeting for the work of all special committees of research and investigation authorized and provided for by such active members at their annual business meeting, shall make a full report of the financial condition of the Association (including the reports of the Secretary, the Treasurer, and the Board of Trustees) to the active members at their annual business meeting, and shall do all in its power to make the Association a useful and honorable institution.

SEC. 5. The Executive Committee shall assist the presiding officer in arranging for the time and place of the annual meeting of the Association, of the National Council of Education, and of the various departments.

The Executive Committee shall recommend to active members at their annual business meeting the appointment of special committees for investigation or research, the subjects for which may have been suggested by the National Council or by the active membership of the National Education Association or by any of its departments; it shall recommend the amount of money to be appropriated for such investigations. When such special committees are provided for and duly authorized by the active members at their annual business meeting, the Executive Committee shall have general supervision of them, shall receive and consider all reports made by them, and shall print such reports, and present the same, together with the reports received from the Secretary, the Treasurer, and the Board of Trustees and the recommendations of the Executive Committee thereon, to the active members at their annual business meeting. All such special committees shall be appointed by the President of the National Education Association.

The Executive Committee shall fill all vacancies occurring in the body of officers of the Association except vacancies in the Board of Directors, Board of Trustees, and the office of Secretary.

SEC. 6. The Board of Trustees shall require of the Secretary and Treasurer bonds of such amount as may be determined by said board for the faithful performance of their duties, shall make a full report of the finances of the Association to the Executive Committee not later than July 1 prior to the annual meeting of the Association, which report shall be transmitted by the Executive Committee to the Board of Directors at the first regular meeting of the board held during the week of the annual meeting of the Association. It shall choose annually its own chairman and secretary.

ARTICLE IV—THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION

SECTION 1. The National Council of Education shall discuss educational questions of public and professional interest; propose to the Executive Committee, from time to time, suitable subjects for investigation and research; have a report made at its annual meeting on "Educational Progress during the Past Year"; and in other ways use its best efforts to further the objects of the Association and to promote the cause of education in general.

SEC. 2. The National Council of Education shall consist of one hundred and twenty regular members, selected from the active membership of the National Education Association. Any active member of the Association is eligible to membership in the Council, and each member shall be elected for six years and until his successor is elected.

SEC. 3. The annual election of members of the Council shall be held at the time of the annual meeting of the Association. The Board of Directors of the Association shall annually elect ten members and the Council ten members, and each body shall fill all vacancies in its quota of members. No state, territory, nor district in the United States shall have at one time more than seven regular members in the Council.

SEC. 4. The annual meeting of the Council shall be held during the week of the annual meeting of the Association.

SEC. 5. The absence of a regular member from two successive annual meetings of the Council shall be considered equivalent to his resignation of membership. Persons whose regular membership in the Council has expired shall be denominated honorary members of the Council during the time of their active membership in the Association with the privilege of attending the regular sessions of the Council and participating in its discussions. A member who discontinues or forfeits his active membership in the Association forfeits his membership in the Council.

SEC. 6. The officers of the Council shall consist of a president, a vice-president, a secretary, and such standing committees as may be prescribed by its by-laws, all of whom shall be regular members of the Council. The Secretary of the Council shall, in addition to performing the duties pertaining to his office, furnish the Secretary of the Association a copy of the proceedings of the Council for publication.

SEC. 7. The National Council of Education is hereby authorized to adopt by-laws for its government not inconsistent with the act of incorporation or the by-laws of the Association; *provided*, That such by-laws be submitted to, and approved by, the Board of Directors of the Association before they shall become operative.

SEC. 8. The powers and duties of the Council may be changed or the Council abolisht upon a two-thirds vote of the Association taken at the annual business meeting of the Association; *provided*, That notice of the proposed action has been given at the preceding annual business meeting of the Association.

ARTICLE V—DEPARTMENTS

SECTION 1. The following departments are now (1914) in existence, to wit: The departments, first, of Superintendence; second, of Normal Schools; third, of Elementary Education; fourth, of Higher Education; fifth, of Vocational Education and Practical Arts; sixth, of Kindergarten Education; seventh, of Music Education; eighth, of

Secondary Education; ninth, of Business Education; tenth, of Child Hygiene; eleventh, of Physical Education; twelfth, of Science Instruction; thirteenth, of School Administration; fourteenth, the Library Department; fifteenth, of Special Education; sixteenth, of School Patrons; seventeenth, of Rural and Agricultural Education; eighteenth, of Classroom Teachers; nineteenth, for the Promotion of the Wider Use of Schoolhouses; twentieth, of Educational Publications; twenty-first, Deans of Women.

SEC. 2. The active members of the Association, and no others, are members of each department of the Association.

SEC. 3. Each department shall hold its annual meeting at the time and place of the annual meeting of the Association, except the Department of Superintendence, which may hold its annual meeting in February of each year, or at such other time as may be determined by said department, subject to the approval of the Board of Directors of the Association.

SEC. 4. The object of the meetings of the departments shall be the discussion of questions pertaining to their respective fields of educational work. The programs of these meetings shall be prepared by the respective presidents in conference with, and under the general direction of, the President of the Association. Each department shall be limited to two sessions, with formal programs, unless otherwise ordered by the President of the Association, except that a third session for business or informal round-table conference may be held at the discretion of the department officers.

SEC. 5. The officers of each department shall consist of a president, a vice-president, and a secretary, who shall be elected at the last formal session of the department to serve one year and until their successors are duly elected, and who shall, at the time of their election, be active members of the Association. In case there is a vacancy in the office of president of any of the departments, it shall be filled by an appointment made by the President of the Association. Any other departmental vacancy shall be filled by appointment made by the president of the department.

SEC. 6. The secretary of each department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, furnish the Secretary of the Association a copy of the proceedings of the meetings of the department for publication.

SEC. 7. All departments shall have equal rights and privileges, with the exception stated in Section 3 of this article. They shall be named in Section 1 of this article in the order of their establishment and shall be dropt from the list when discontinued. Each department may be governed by its own regulations in so far as they are not inconsistent with the act of incorporation or these by-laws.

SEC. 8. A new department may be establisht by a two-thirds vote of the Board of Directors taken at a regular meeting of the board or by a two-thirds vote of the active members at any annual business meeting; *provided*, That a written application for said department, with title and purpose of the same, shall have been made at the regular meeting of the board next preceding the one at which action is taken, or at the preceding annual business meeting, by at least twenty-five members engaged or interested in the field of labor in the interest of which the department is purposed to be establisht. A department already establisht may be discontinued by the Board of Directors upon a two-thirds vote taken at a regular meeting, or by a two-thirds vote of the active members at any business meeting of the active members; *provided*, That announcement has been made of the proposed action at a regular meeting of the board the preceding year, or at the preceding annual business meeting. A department shall be discontinued when it fails to hold a regular meeting for two successive years.

ARTICLE VI—COMMITTEES

SECTION 1. On the first day of each annual meeting of the Association, unless appointment has already been made, the President shall appoint a Committee on Resolutions, consisting of seven active members, and a Committee on Necrology,

consisting of five active members, and on the third day of such meeting he shall appoint a Committee on Nominations, consisting of one active member from each state, territory, and district represented at the meeting. Each state, territorial, and district representative shall be appointed on the nomination of the active members in attendance from said state, territory, or district; *provided*, That three or more active members participate in said nomination in accordance with these by-laws; and *provided further*, That in case of the failure of the active members of any state, territory, or district to nominate a member of the nominating committee in accordance with these by-laws, the President shall appoint an active member from said state, territory, or district, to serve on said committee. At the regular meeting of the Board of Directors on the first day of the annual meeting, the President shall appoint an Auditing Committee consisting of three active members of the Association, no one of whom shall be either a trustee or a director; to this committee shall be referred the report of the expert accountant, together with the communication of the President transmitting the same, as provided in Section 6 of this article; and the committee shall report its findings at the meeting of active members. The chairman of each of the foregoing committees shall be designated by the President of the Association at the time of its appointment.

Sec. 2. The meetings of active members present from the several states, territories, etc., to nominate members of the nominating committee shall be held on the first day of the annual meeting of the Association, at such time and places as shall be designated on the annual program by the President of the Association.

Sec. 3. The Committee on Nominations shall meet on the fourth day of the annual meeting at 9:00 A.M., at a place designated by the President of the Association, and shall nominate persons for the following offices in the Association, to wit: one person for President, eleven persons for Vice-Presidents, one person for Treasurer, and one person from each state, territory, and district in the United States as a member of the Board of Directors. It shall report to the active members at their annual business meeting.

Sec. 4. The Committee on Resolutions shall report at the annual business meeting of active members, and, except by unanimous consent, all resolutions shall be referred to said committee, without discussion. This committee shall receive and consider all resolutions proposed by active members, or referred to it by the President; some time during the second day of the annual meeting of the Association the committee shall hold a meeting, at a place and time to be announst in the printed program, for the purpose of receiving proposed resolutions and hearing those who may wish to advocate them.

Sec. 5. The Committee on Necrology shall prepare for the publisht *Proceedings* a list of the active and corresponding members that have died during the year, accompanied by memorial sketches whenever practicable.

Sec. 6. Within thirty days prior to the time of the annual meeting of the Association, the President shall appoint a competent person, firm, or corporation licenst to do business as expert accountants; the accountants so appointed shall examine the accounts, papers, and vouchers of the Secretary, the Treasurer, and the Board of Trustees, and compare the same, and shall also examine the securities of the Permanent Fund held by the Board of Trustees. The report of the said accountants shall be filed with the President before the opening day of the annual meeting of the Association, and shall be by him submitted with such comments as he may think proper, to the Board of Directors, at their meeting held on the first day of the annual meeting of the Association.

ARTICLE VII—MEETINGS

Section 1. A stated meeting of the Association, of the Council of Education, and of each department shall be held annually at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors or the Executive Committee acting for the board in accordance with these by-laws. An annual meeting of the Association and its subordinate bodies

may be omitted for an extraordinary cause, upon the written consent of two-thirds of the directors of the Association, obtained by the Executive Committee.

SEC. 2. The annual meeting of the Association shall be held in July, beginning on a day determined by the Executive Committee. Two sessions shall be held daily, unless otherwise ordered by the President of the Association. The annual business meeting of the active members shall be held on the fifth day of the annual meeting at 11:00 A.M. A regular meeting of the Board of Directors shall be held on the first day of the annual meeting at 10:30 A.M. The first regular meeting of the new Board of Directors shall be held as soon as practicable and within twenty-four hours after the close of the last session of the annual meeting, the place and time of the meeting to be announst in the printed program. The Board of Trustees shall hold its annual meeting at some convenient time and immediately following the meeting of the new Board of Directors referred to above in this section. Special meetings of the trustees may be called by the chairman, and shall be called on request of the majority of the Board of Trustees. Due notice of all meetings of the Board of Trustees shall be given to every member of the board by the secretary thereof.

ARTICLE VIII—PROCEEDINGS

SECTION 1. The proceedings of the meeting of the Association, the Council, and the departments shall be publisht under the direction of a committee consisting of the President, the First Vice-President, and the Secretary, the First Vice-President acting as chairman of the committee; *provided*, That in the opinion of the Executive Committee the funds of the Association warrant the publication. Each member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of the *Proceedings*. Associate members must make written application to the Secretary on or before November 1 for a copy in order to obtain it. Corresponding members, and active members whose dues are paid, will receive the publisht *Proceedings* without written application.

SEC. 2. No paper, lecture, nor address shall be read before the Association or any of the departments in the absence of its author, without the approval of the President of the Association or of the departments interested, nor shall any such paper, lecture, or address be publisht in the *Proceedings*, without the approval of the Executive Committee.

ARTICLE IX—ELECTIONS, QUORUM

SECTION 1. The certificate of membership, in connection with the official list of active members, shall be accepted as evidence that members are entitled to vote.

SEC. 2. Representatives from twenty-five states and territories shall constitute a quorum in all meetings of active members and of the Board of Directors.

ARTICLE X—APPROPRIATIONS

SECTION 1. Unless otherwise ordered by the active members at their annual business meeting, not less than 10 per cent of the gross income of the Association each year shall be set aside for such educational investigations and studies as may be ordered in accordance with Section 5 of Article III.

ARTICLE XI—AMENDMENTS

SECTION 1. These by-laws may be altered or amended at the annual business meeting of the active members by unanimous consent, or by a two-thirds vote of the active members present if the alteration or amendment shall have been substantially proposed in writing at the annual business meeting next preceding the one at which action is taken; due announcement of the proposed action shall be made in the annual publisht *Proceedings*.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

NOW KNOWN AS THE

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

CERTIFICATE

of Acceptance of Charter and Adoption of By-Laws under Act of Congress approved June 30, 1906.

We, the undersigned, Nathan C. Schaeffer, the presiding officer, and Irwin Shepard, the Secretary of the meeting of the National Educational Association held at Los Angeles, California, on the 10th day of July, 1907, said meeting being the annual meeting of the Association held next after the passage of an act of Congress entitled "An Act to Incorporate the National Education Association of the United States,"

Do hereby certify, that at said meeting held pursuant to due notice, a quorum being present, the said Association adopted resolutions of which true copies are hereto attached, and accepted the charter of the National Education Association of the United States, granted by said act of Congress, and adopted by-laws as provided in said act and elected officers; and the undersigned pursuant to said resolutions

Do hereby certify that the National Education Association of the United States has duly accepted said charter granted by said act of Congress, and adopted by-laws, and is the lawful successor to the National Educational Association.

In witness whereof, we have hereunto signed our names this 20th day of August, 1907.

NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, *Presiding Officer*
IRWIN SHEPARD, *Secretary*

VERIFICATION

RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED BY THE ACTIVE MEMBERS, JULY 10, 1907

1. *Resolved*, That the National Educational Association hereby accepts the charter granted by an act of Congress entitled "An Act to Incorporate the National Education Association of the United States," passed June 30, 1906, and that the President and Secretary of this meeting be authorized and directed to execute and file with the Recorder of Deeds of the District of Columbia a verified certificate showing the acceptance by the Association of the charter granted by said act.

2. *Resolved*, That the proposed by-laws of which notice was given at the annual meeting of the Association held on July 6, 1905, which are printed in full in the Journal of said meeting, be and the same are hereby adopted to take effect immediately.

3. *Resolved*, That the Association adopt as its corporate seal a circle containing the title "National Education Association of the United States," and the dates "1857–1907."

4. *Resolved*, That the Association do now proceed to elect officers, and to organize under the charter granted by the act of Congress.

Filed in the office of the Recorder of Deeds of the District of Columbia, September 4, 1907.

CALENDAR OF MEETINGS

NATIONAL TEACHERS ASSOCIATION, 1857–1870

1857—PHILADELPHIA, PA. (Organized)
James L. Enos, Chairman.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary

1858—CINCINNATI, OHIO
Z. Richards, President.
J. W. Bulkley, Secretary.
A. J. Rickoff, Treasurer.

1859—WASHINGTON, D.C.
A. J. Rickoff, President.
J. W. Bulkley, Secretary.
C. S. Pennell, Treasurer.

1860—BUFFALO, N.Y.
J. W. Bulkley, President.
Z. Richards, Secretary.
O. C. Wight, Treasurer.

1861, 1862—No session.

1863—CHICAGO, ILL.
John D. Philbrick, President.
James Cruikshank, Secretary.
O. C. Wight, Treasurer.

1864—OGDENSBURG, N.Y.
W. H. Wells, President.
David N. Camp, Secretary.
Z. Richards, Treasurer.

1865—HARRISBURG, PA.
S. S. Greene, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
Z. Richards, Treasurer.

1866—INDIANAPOLIS, IND.
J. P. Wickersham, President.
S. H. White, Secretary.
S. P. Bates, Treasurer.

1867—No session.

1868—NASHVILLE, TENN.
J. M. Gregory, President.
L. Van Bokkelen, Secretary.
James Cruikshank, Treasurer.

1869—TRENTON, N.J.
L. Van Bokkelen, President.
W. E. Crosby, Secretary.
A. L. Barber, Treasurer.

1870—CLEVELAND, OHIO
Daniel B. Hagar, President.
A. P. Marble, Secretary.
W. E. Crosby, Treasurer.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 1871–1907

1871—ST. LOUIS, MO.
J. L. Pickard, President.
W. E. Crosby, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer.

1872—BOSTON, MASS.
E. E. White, President.
S. H. White, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer.

1873—ELMIRA, N.Y.
B. G. Northrop, President.
S. H. White, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer.

1874—DETROIT, MICH.
S. H. White, President.
A. P. Marble, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer.

1875—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
W. T. Harris, President.
M. R. Abbott, Secretary.
A. P. Marble, Treasurer.

1876—BALTIMORE, MD.
W. F. Phelps, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
A. P. Marble, Treasurer.

1877—LOUISVILLE, KY.
M. A. Newell, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
J. Ormond Wilson, Treasurer.

1878—No session.

1879—PHILADELPHIA, PA.
John Hancock, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
J. Ormond Wilson, Treasurer.

1880—CHAUTAUQUA, N.Y.
J. Ormond Wilson, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
E. T. Tappan, Treasurer.

1881—ATLANTA, GA.
James H. Smart, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
E. T. Tappan, Treasurer.

1882—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N.Y.
G. J. Orr, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
H. S. Tarbell, Treasurer.

1883—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N.Y.
E. T. Tappan, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
N. A. Calkins, Treasurer.

1884—MADISON, WIS.
Thomas W. Bicknell, President.
H. S. Tarbell, Secretary.
N. A. Calkins, Treasurer.

1885—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N.Y.
F. Louis Soldan, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
N. A. Calkins, Treasurer.

1886—TOPEKA, KANS.
N. A. Calkins, President
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.

1887—CHICAGO, ILL.
W. E. Sheldon, President.
J. H. Canfield, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.

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1889—NASHVILLE, TENN.
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(International Congress of Education)
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1906—No session.

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JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

FIFTY-SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

PITTSBURGH, PA., JUNE 29—JULY 6, 1918

EDUCATIONAL SUNDAY

Sunday, June 30, was observed as Educational Sunday. In many of the churches the pastors had invited prominent educators in attendance at the convention to speak from the pulpit on topics of educational interest, and the public attended the services in large numbers.

FIRST DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

OPENING SESSION—Monday Afternoon, July 1, 2:00 o'clock

The Fifty-sixth Annual Convention of the National Education Association was opened in Syria Mosque, Pittsburgh, Pa., at 2:00 P.M. on July 1.

Vice-President Robert J. Aley, of the University of Maine, Orono, Me., presided at the opening of the session.

The meeting opened with community and patriotic singing, led by Will Earhart, of Pittsburgh, Pa., after which Adele Bradford Hatton, of Denver, Colo., read from the Scriptures and the "Star-Spangled Banner."

Addresses of welcome were given by E. V. Babcock, mayor, Pittsburgh, Pa.; Samuel Hamilton, superintendent of schools, Allegheny County, Pa.; W. M. Davidson, superintendent of schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.; and responded to by Josephine Corliss Preston, state superintendent of public instruction, Olympia, Wash.

Vice-President Aley then introduced Mary C. C. Bradford, state superintendent of public instruction, Denver, Colo., president of the National Education Association, and transferred to her the conduct of the convention.

President Bradford then delivered the presidential address, which was entitled, "The Building of the New Civilization."

Nathan C. Schaeffer, state superintendent of public instruction, Harrisburg, Pa., delivered the closing address.

President Bradford announst the Committee on Resolutions, and other committees.

SECOND SESSION—Monday Evening, July 1, 8:00 o'clock

The meeting was given over to a discussion of "War-Modified Education in the countries of our European Allies." The following speakers presented the views of their respective countries: Amy A. Bernardy, Rome, Italy, representing the government and education associations of Italy; Frank Roscoe, secretary, Teachers' Registration Council, London, England, representing the government and education associations of Great

Britain; Suzanne Silvercruys, Belgian Relief Committee, Philadelphia, Pa., representing the government and the people of Belgium; Paul Perigord, French High Commission, Washington, D.C., representing the government and education associations of France.

SECOND DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

THIRD SESSION—Tuesday Afternoon, July 2, 2:00 o'clock

Following community and patriotic singing, addresses were delivered by the following: Walter A. Jessup, president, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa; Katherine D. Blake, principal, Public School No. 6, Brooklyn, N.Y.; William L. Ettinger, superintendent of schools, New York, N.Y.; Joseph Swain, president, Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa.; Frank A. Vanderlip, chairman, National War Savings Committee, Washington, D.C.

FOURTH SESSION—Tuesday Evening, July 2, 8:00 o'clock

The general topic for discussion was "Education for Democracy," and after community and patriotic singing by the audience, addresses were delivered by: James A. B. Scherer, member, Council of National Defense, Washington, D. C.; John Collier, president, National Community Center Association, New York, N.Y.; P. P. Claxton, National Commissioner of Education, Washington, D.C.; ex-Governor Eberhart, of Minnesota.

THIRD DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

FIFTH SESSION—Wednesday Afternoon, July 3, 2:00 o'clock

The topic for the afternoon was "The National Emergency in Education," and the vital points in the work of the National Education Association Commission were presented by the following members of the commission:

W. C. Bagley, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.; Thomas E. Finegan, deputy commissioner of education, Albany, N.Y.; Lotus D. Coffman, dean of the College of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.; Carroll G. Pearse, president, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.; J. A. C. Chandler, superintendent of schools, Richmond, Va.; George D. Strayer, professor of educational administration, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

SIXTH SESSION—Wednesday Evening, July 3, 8:00 o'clock

The meeting opened with community and patriotic singing, led by A. J. Gantvoort, College of Music, Cincinnati, Ohio.

After the singing, the following delivered addresses on various phases of the general topic "Training for Foreign Service"; Frederick Peterson, president, Lunacy Commission, New York, N.Y.; Glen L. Swiggett, Bureau of Education, chairman, Committee of Fifteen on Educational Preparation for Foreign Service, Washington, D.C.; Mrs. Louis F. Post, member, Executive Committee, Women's Auxiliary Committee of the United States, Second Pan-American Scientific Congress, Washington, D.C.

At the close of the session President Bradford announst the appointment of the Committee on Nominations.

FOURTH DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

SEVENTH SESSION—Thursday Forenoon, July 4, 9:00 o'clock

After community and patriotic singing, the meeting was called to order by President Bradford, and addresses were given by: Elizabeth A. Woodward, supervisor, Brooklyn Free Kindergarten Society, Brooklyn, N.Y.; Ernest A. Smith, superintendent of schools,

Salt Lake City, Utah; David Snedden, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.; Ella Flagg Young, Washington, D.C.; Martin G. Brumbaugh, governor of Pennsylvania, Harrisburg, Pa.

EIGHTH SESSION—THURSDAY EVENING, JULY 4, 8:00 O'CLOCK

President Bradford called the meeting to order, after the usual community and patriotic singing, and the addresses of the evening were given by: Andrew F. West, dean, Graduate School, Princeton University, Princeton, N.J.; Maud M. Miles, art department, Manual Training High School, Kansas City, Mo.; R. M. McElroy, president, National Security League, New York, N.Y.; G. Stanley Hall, president, Clark University, Worcester, Mass.

FIFTH DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

NINTH SESSION—FRIDAY FORENOON, JULY 5, 9:00 O'CLOCK

The meeting opened with community and patriotic singing, led by P. W. Dykema, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis., after which the meeting was called to order by President Bradford, and addresses were delivered by the following: J. A. Churchill, state superintendent of public instruction, Salem, Ore.; D. E. Phillips, head of department of psychology and education, University of Denver, Denver, Colo.; Franklin K. Lane, Secretary of the Interior, Washington, D.C.

Following the program, the annual business meeting of active members was held.

TENTH SESSION—FRIDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 5, 2:00 O'CLOCK

The general topic for discussion was "War-Modified Education and the Rise of the Common Life thru It."

After the opening music, the meeting was called to order by President Bradford, and the addresses of the afternoon were given by the following: H. W. Wells, Boys' Working Reserve, Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.; Walter R. Siders, superintendent of schools, Pocatello, Idaho; Cora Wilson Stewart, president, Kentucky Illiteracy Commission, Frankfort, Ky.; Jane Addams, Hull-House, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. George Bass, secretary, National Liberty Loan Committee, Washington, D.C.; Milton Fairchild, National Institute for Moral Instruction, Washington, D.C.; A. E. Winship, *Journal of Education*, Boston, Mass.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

The members of the Association express their appreciation to the Committee on Arrangements for the measures taken for the success of this meeting, to the press of the city for its reports of our meetings, to the teachers, to the Board of Education, to the city officials, to the chairmen and their associates of the special Committees on Entertainment, and to the citizens of Pittsburgh for the royal welcome and hospitality accorded the Association.

DECLARATION OF PRINCIPLES

The National Education Association, assembled in annual convention in the city of Pittsburgh, July 5, 1918, recognizes that the first great business of the nation is the winning of the war, and to this end pledges the fullest measure of service and sacrifice for the sacred cause of our country, of democracy, and of humanity.

At this fateful hour in the life of our nation the Association reaffirms its faith in the American common-school system as the only safe and sure foundation for a democracy either in peace or in war. It asserts its belief that the three-quarters of a century of free

public instruction was the main factor in preparing our people for that quick and right understanding of the real meaning of this world-conflict, and in making possible that hearty concord of thought and action which placed the material and human resources of the Republic on the side of righteousness, humanity, and civilization. With peculiar satisfaction the Association points to the fact that 750,000 teachers and twenty-two million pupils have supported loyally every plan and purpose of President Wilson and Congress in their masterful leadership in honorable warfare for a just cause and a decisive victory.

WAR CRISIS SHOWS NEED FOR READJUSTMENT

While this Association believes that the war crisis has disclosed to the nation, as no other event has, the strength and worth of the American school system, it does not fail to recognize that the emergencies and demands of war have laid bare certain weaknesses and shortcomings in the scope and character of public education that now call for readjustment and reorganization.

ASSOCIATION COMMENDS COMMISSION

The Association commends its Commission on the National Emergency in Education for the broad and comprehensive study of these needed readjustments.

AMERICANIZING THE ADULT POPULATION

The high percentage of adult illiteracy and the lack of understanding of the real meaning of our nation and the principles of its government constitute a menace to national unity and national safety. Therefore this Association recommends that the government shall share with the states the responsibility of providing the funds, the organization, the administration, and the supervision necessary for Americanizing and making literate the adult population of the entire country.

A NATIONAL POLICY OF ENCOURAGEMENT

The most alarming shortcoming in our system disclosed by the war is the unequal educational opportunities offered by the different states to the children of school age within those states. As long as a single state in the Union fails to provide its youth with the means of attaining certain minimum, nation-wide standards of health, intelligence, citizenship, and character, our national life and unity are endangered. This Association therefore urges that the government shall immediately adopt the policy of encouraging all the states to establish uniform minimum standards of health service, training for citizenship, and preparation and compensation of teachers, thru financial aid distributed to the states enforcing these standards, the amount to which any state is entitled to be determined on a simple basis. Nothing in this national policy of encouragement to the several states shall be permitted in any way to weaken the local responsibility or initiative or to subtract from the power of the state to organize, administer, and supervise the schools of that state.

ASSOCIATION AUTHORIZES FIELD SECRETARY

The Association commands the thorogoing study made by the Committee on Salaries, Tenure, and Pensions, and recommends its report for the careful consideration and use of teachers, school boards, taxpayers, and lawmakers. In order to collect full information concerning the present state of public education, to enlighten public opinion, and to aid in securing appropriate local, state, and national school support, the Association authorizes the Executive Committee to secure the full time, for a term of not less than three years, of an educator of recognized ability and experience, and to provide for the organization, correspondence, travel, publication, and other expenses of his office a total sum, including salaries, of at least ten thousand dollars a year.

INSURE TEACHERS LIVING AND SAVING WAGE

To the end that schools may be kept open and that the children of the Republic may have competent teachers, we declare it to be the patriotic duty of taxpayers and lawmakers to provide sufficient revenues to insure a living and a saving wage to the teachers of the country.

FEDERAL CHILD LABOR LAW

The Association urges the immediate enactment by Congress of a Federal Child Labor Law which will not only meet the objection found by the Supreme Court in the one declared unconstitutional, but will extend protection to a greater number of the children of the United States.

SOCIALIZED SCHOOLS FOR EFFICIENT DEMOCRACY

The schools of a modern, efficient democracy must necessarily be socialized schools. They must train for the whole life of all the people. To achieve this result the Association recommends that larger opportunities be provided for activity which will develop the initiative and resourcefulness of children, thus fitting them to meet the demands of our democracy.

COLLEGE MILITARY UNITS APPROVED

This Association approves heartily the action of President Wilson and the Secretary of War in offering a plan whereby young men above eighteen years of age may enlist in the Army and continue their college courses in such institutions as have at least one hundred students ready and eligible to form a military unit.

WOMEN TO TRAIN GIRLS FOR CIVIC AND SOCIAL LIFE

The present emergency demands the careful consideration of the problem of training the girls of America for efficient and intelligent participation in the civic and social life of our local communities, of the state, and of the nation. The Association urges, therefore, that in city, county, and state school systems women with skill in leadership be placed in charge of that part of our school work which has the direct responsibility of training the women of tomorrow to assume the new obligations of civic and social life.

TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP DEMANDED

The Association demands the teaching of patriotism by every teacher from the kindergarten to the university, and the employment of only those teachers who are loyal to our national ideals. It urges that all teachers, as soldiers of the common good, take the oath of allegiance. The Association further demands that all instruction in the schools of the nation be conducted in the English language.

COMMITTEE ON PUBLIC INFORMATION

The Association commends the action of President Wilson in making the publicity of the best work of our public schools a part of the work of the Committee on Public Information, and expresses its appreciation of the President's support of the movement to mobilize the boys and girls of America for food production.

COMMENDS JUNIOR RED CROSS

The Association particularly commends the patriotic service of the Junior Red Cross with the understanding that it conform to the standards, motives, and aims of the American Red Cross.

EDUCATION OF ENLISTED MEN

The Association favors the making of liberal provisions by both state and nation for the giving of special assistance, opportunity, and encouragement to the men in the service of the country to obtain the advantages of education that were omitted by the necessity of the great crisis.

STATES URGED TO ADOPT PROHIBITION AMENDMENT

The Association urges the adoption by the states of the amendment for the prohibition of the sale and manufacture of intoxicating beverages.

SUFFRAGE AMENDMENT APPROVED

The Association favors the granting of the ballot to the womanhood of America and urges the Senate of the United States to pass at the present session the separate suffrage amendment to our federal Constitution.

FAVORS ESTABLISHMENT OF A NATIONAL UNIVERSITY

The Association favors the establishment of a national university, the creation of a national department of education under the direction of a secretary of education, and the protection of teachers in all departments of education from unwarranted dismissal by employing bodies.

FOOD ADMINISTRATION TO PREPARE CONSERVATION PROGRAM

The Association recommends that the United States Food Administration prepare in a form suitable for use in elementary schools, and particularly in the upper grades, lessons and materials supplementary to existing courses, which will promote the program of food conservation. It is further recommended that the food administration call to its assistance representative school authorities familiar with the capacities of children of the different grades, to constitute an advisory council for the Food Administration in the preparation of material designed for school use.

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL TRAINING

Realizing that good health and a good physique constitute the foundation for all life-work, physical, mental, and spiritual, the Association urges that boards of education make health and physical training a major subject, with equal rating with all other school subjects, and that adequate facilities, including teachers, play field, and apparatus, be provided; and further, that care be exercised to secure those teachers best adapted to the training of boys and girls.

The Association instructs the Commission on the Emergency in Education and such other committees as may have under consideration the problems of health and physical education to inquire concerning the work that is now being done and the methods which may have proved most acceptable in the field of sex education.

DUAL SYSTEM OF SCHOOLS CONDEMNED

The Association favors amending the Smith-Hughes Act to prevent the possibility of establishing a dual system of schools in any state.

CONSCRIPTION FOR SELECTIVE SERVICE

In the emergency that now exists, the Association urges that all the manhood and womanhood of the United States be conscripted for selective service.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OFFICERS COMMENDED

The members of the Association commend the present administration of the National Education Association for the excellent program presented and for the constructive character of the work which the Association is doing.

PATRIOTIC SPIRIT OF CONGRESS

The Association wishes to express its appreciation of the national Congress for the patriotic spirit shown in the hour of crisis in its subordination of partisanship to statesmanship in national legislation.

ENTIRE CONFIDENCE IN PRESIDENT

Realizing the tremendous task suddenly imposed upon our government in changing from the pursuits of peace to those of war, and appreciating the marvelous achievements in creating an army, in mobilizing all the economic forces of the nation, and especially in transporting an immense army across an ocean beset by unusual dangers, while supplying our Allies with food and war material, the Association expresses its confidence in the national administration, and especially its confidence in the ability, clearness of vision, and leadership of the Commander-in-Chief of our Army and Navy, President Woodrow Wilson.

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GENERAL SESSIONS OF THE ASSOCIATION

ADDRESSES OF WELCOME

EDWARD VOSE BABCOCK, MAYOR OF THE CITY OF PITTSBURGH, PA.

As the Mayor of Pittsburgh it gives me great pleasure to welcome to our city the members of the National Education Association. The citizens of Pittsburgh deem themselves signally honored that you have chosen this city as your meeting-place in this fateful year in the history of our country and of the world.

You, Madame President, are the head of an organization which, representing the school system of America, is perhaps by this fact the most distinctly American body in the country. It stands at once as the creation and the hope of our democracy.

From the day of its experimental beginnings, thru the years during which it was gradually extended thruout every American commonwealth, the public school has grown steadily in its usefulness and in its capacity to serve the needs of the people of the nation. In the older commonwealths it necessarily displaced existing schools, among them the church schools of different denominations. Naturally there was opposition at first which had to be overcome. The school, however, so perfectly commended itself both to the good sense and to the patriotism of the citizen that in the progress of time he became quite willing to meet the larger expense of the extension of the system into the high school and in most of our commonwealths into and thru the university itself. The only problem now is more perfectly to adapt our system of public education to the needs of our Republic, so that it may better fit our young people for their duties as citizens, better equip them for the practical duties of life, and more thoroly train them to enter fields of scientific investigation and study. It is to discuss and gradually to solve such problems as these that you are gathering together in this great conference. Most heartily do I commend the purpose of your assembly and most sincerely do I express the hope that you may realize your highest expectations in this particular conference in this crisis of human affairs.

Never has the public school made such marvelous progress as in the most recent years. The people have been coming to a recognition of the fact that our public school is perhaps the greatest socializing institution in America, and that as such it is capable of rendering a service of untold value to society and to the state.

The teacher in the public school of America has come into his own and has demonstrated that he is capable, not only of working out and

administering a system of public instruction, but of making that institution a most potent agent in its transforming power for the socialization and the Americanization of all classes of people, which is so essential to the well-being of our American life.

I congratulate you also, Madame President, upon the program which you and your associates have prepared for this meeting. It indicates that the leaders in our public school system are alive both to this present and to this future obligation. No one can take up the program of this great conference, with its fifty pages crowded with topics of national interest and national obligation, without being mightily imprest with both the brain power and the patriotic fervor of those who had a part in its preparation.

In this great city of busy industry and at this time of quickened activity and production, this Association has come to spend a week with us. Around you are social clubs, hotels, and churches, universities, parks, and high schools, a memorial hall, an armory, the temples of fraternities, and all the rest. Gathered here at this time are over two thousand enlisted men receiving their training for war service in the University of Pittsburgh and in the School of Technology. In these splendid edifices, in this beautiful civic center, it is possible for your great Association to assemble at the same moment twenty-five audiences in commodious auditoriums, seating four hundred and more people, and to do this with as little effort as a congregation might gather in its accustomed place of worship. We may be pardoned for this pride we have in our city and its institutions. Of none, however, are we more profoundly grateful than for our schools, our colleges, and our universities. We are delighted that you have chosen Pittsburgh as your meeting-place this year, and we trust that when you have completed your conference, with its rich and varied program, you may go away with as profound a feeling of gratitude that you came as we have in receiving you as our guests at this time.

II. SAMUEL HAMILTON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ALLEGHENY COUNTY, PA.

You have just been welcomed to the city by his honor, the Mayor. In a few minutes you will receive a whole-souled welcome to the hearts, the homes, and the hospitality of the people of Pittsburgh by its distinguisht educational leader as the educational representative of the city. In like manner I deem it a great honor and a rare privilege to speak a word of welcome for the teachers of western Pennsylvania, and especially for the school people of Allegheny County, those working outside the confines of the city of Pittsburgh and yet within the limits of what Lincoln even sixty years ago called the "State of Allegheny." You are the nation's leaders in educational thought and action, and on behalf of our teachers I extend to you a most hearty and cordial welcome.

In this part of the State of Allegheny there is a graded-school system including some 2500 schools with a school population of 85,000, and a rural school system of 400 schools with 16,000 pupils. This vast school population is organized in two cities, 70 other municipalities each with from 1,000 to 25,000 inhabitants, and 55 townships. These schools are under the supervision of two city superintendents, nine town superintendents, and a county superintendent with five assistants.

All of our schools stand loyally and enthusiastically back of every movement to win the war. We have almost 1000 war gardens this year, worth possibly $500,000; 85,000 of our pupils are members of the Junior Red Cross. In point of time the first food bulletin issued in the nation came from the domestic-art teachers of Allegheny County, mobilized in the interests of food conservation. More than 1500 of our high-school boys are now on farms under the direction of the United States Boys' Working Reserve. In the Liberty Loan campaigns our schools sold about three million of the bonds. Thousands of our boys have gone to fight on the Western Front. And while they fight and die to help hold the line, our schools are doing their part to show our people that every good citizen will either "go across or come across"—go across to fight or come across with the money or the effort that will help win the war.

Ninety per cent of our teachers have received normal, college, or university training, and, gathered as they are from many states and many counties, representing practically all the higher institutions of learning, they are probably unsurpast in scholarship, culture, zeal, efficiency, and skill by any body of teachers in the land.

It is an honor and a pleasure to represent such a group of teachers, and to bring to you their cordial greetings and warm-hearted felicitations. Your presence here is a pleasure and an inspiration to us, and I trust that your stay in the city will be as pleasant to you as it will be to us. As the inspiration of a great occasion lingers long after the event has become a matter of history, so the recollection of your presence and the inspiration, enthusiasm, and uplift growing out of it will remain long after you have taken your departure.

Our supreme faith is not in material things. Our people believe that intelligence is better than industry, that wisdom is better than wealth, that culture is better than cash, that manhood is better than money, that brains are better than boilers, and that minds are infinitely better than mills. Acting upon this faith, the State of Allegheny has invested more than fifteen million dollars in modern school plants, that the children, the greatest of all our assets, may have the best educational advantages the age affords.

Our people realize that material prosperity depends in the last analysis upon the school. Every mill, every shop, and every factory began with an idea. By thought and investigation that idea developt into a plan, and

then thru mind-directed effort, due to intellectual and vocational training, it materialized into an actuality with physical form and physical characteristics. In point of time then, as well as of importance, the teacher precedes the engineer, the school precedes the shop, and the immaterial thought takes precedence over the material thing. The school, therefore, which develops the "clear-eyed man who knows" and "the thinker who drives things thru" stands back of the mill, the shop, the factory, and all superior industrial conditions.

The war-school program theme for this meeting is most fitting. The clock of the world's fate strikes twelve. Democracy is threatened. Civil liberty is in the balance. Civilization is in mourning. In such a crisis democracy may well ask, What can the school do? If public education is the deliberate effort of the state to make better citizens, it must act. If the free school in a republic is expected to function in patriotism as well as in general intelligence, it must offer some plan of action.

Again I greet you and bid you welcome! And on behalf of our teachers I express the hope that when you leave it will be with an intense desire to return.

RESPONSE TO ADDRESSES OF WELCOME

JOSEPHINE CORLISS PRESTON, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, OLYMPIA, WASH.

I count it a great privilege and an honor to respond in the name of the National Education Association to these friends who have so kindly extended to us the courtesies and hospitality of this great city.

This royal welcome, which has been so ably voist by these three distinguisht men, bespeaks a welcome for us, not only from this city, but from this county and from the great "Keystone State" as well. The National Education Association is indebted to this state for many of its ablest members, conspicuous among them being its present chief executive. The state of Pennsylvania is to be congratulated on being able to secure the services of this distinguisht educator to guide the Ship of State through these perilous times.

At this moment when our eyes are fixt upon the scene "over there," where the flower of our American manhood is paying the price of greater world-opportunity and world-freedom with precious life-blood, it is fitting that this great body of educators should meet for earnest deliberation in the city of Pittsburgh, the recognized "Armory of the Nation." For one hundred and fifty years it has been regarded as a key in the transportation routes between the Atlantic seaboard and the great West. We recognize in Pittsburgh a great industrial center, a great civic center, and a great educational center.

We are here as the educators of a united nation to counsel together. We desire to be steadfast in our purpose to keep our schools uniformly moving forward in the line of true progress, even tho a great world-conflict is upon us. We are facing a great emergency in education. War demands the best. War is taking the best.

The Commission on the National Emergency in Education, the creation of which was inspired by our worthy President, has been at work on the problem of the readjustment of education during and after the war. The program which the commission has in mind will be presented at this meeting. Never was there so favorable an opportunity for removing the most significant handicaps under which public-school education in this country has labored.

The attention of this great body will be focust this week upon the problems which this commission conceives to be the outstanding problems in education, in the solution of which the school men and women should take an unquestioned leadership. Briefly, the outstanding problems are these: (1) the preparation and supply of competent teachers for all types of public schools; (2) rural education; (3) health education, physical education, and wholesome education; (4) the reduction and early elimination of adult illiteracy; (5) the Americanization of the immigrant; (6) education for national service.

I stand before you as spokesman of a national organization which towers above others in the scope of its work and its opportunity for service.

The National Education Association, alert to the situation, has this year establisht permanent headquarters at Washington, D.C., the only place from which this national body can function properly. This new educational home of ours is a four-story residence located in close proximity to the buildings of the various embassies. The location of the home of the National Education Association in Washington makes it possible for the teaching profession to cooperate directly with the government in all educational matters.

The general program of this meeting is the outgrowth of war conditions as they have reacted upon our schools, and in this program an effort will be made by the speakers to show how the schools must of necessity react in turn upon national development in the present crisis. We are indebted to the government of three of the allied nations, England, Italy, and France, and to their respective education associations, for the messages which their representatives will bring to this meeting, and thru which we shall learn of the efforts which these three nations are making to solve our common problems in education.

This program expresses a conception of the need of international effort. This meeting occurring, as it does, in one of the most crucial years of the world's history, will undoubtedly prove to be one of the greatest meetings of this august body.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS

THE BUILDING OF THE NEW CIVILIZATION

MARY C. C. BRADFORD, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, DENVER, COLO.

Today this Association stands upon the Mount of Vision, led to the summit by the red hand of war. Of the nation's travail is born our opportunity. The world's agony is our baptism, admitting us to membership in the knightly army of servants and soldiers of freedom. As crusaders of the new humanity I greet you and bid you listen to the challenge of the God of Nations. In the stillness of the night who has not heard his voice saying in accents of stern beauty: "Who goes there?" Have we answered, "Thy servant, Lord; ready to do Thy will. Take me, use me, all of me, body, mind, soul, time, effort, money"? Thank God, yes, from a mighty host of school people has this consecrated cry gone up!

In past years the Association has sometimes tarried in the sunlit valleys, participating in the rich and varied life of normal times, seeking, thru a discussion of many phases of educational activity, to arrive at a definite and decisive program of educational progress. At other times, leaving the more purely scholastic phases of endeavor, this great body of teachers has striven to realize its relation to the surging impulse of the common life and to adapt educational practice to modern community needs.

But the past year has been one of steady climbing, of eager, yet persistent, pushing toward the summit, where alone creative decisions can be made. The present situation is pregnant with vital issues. The tragic, yet augustly beautiful, national and international crises—blood-stained, yet diademed with the stars of a lofty idealism, are conditioning educational thinking and acting, and putting educational systems to the acid test of social and spiritual results.

Well may we, representatives of the teaching profession, face with awe our mighty responsibilities. Never before in the history of the world have the schools been called upon to play so potent a part in the national destiny. Not until now has the school organization been made the transmitting medium of a nation's hopes, needs, decisions, and commands. Until the present moment schoolroom walls have been opaque. Now they are known to be the almost transparent windows thru which the light of national service shines, from which must be reflected the conscious unity of the teacher, the child, the community, and the world. The war has called to the colors, summoned into active service of the most strenuous kind, every home in the land, thru the agency of the Young Soldiers of the School Republic, officered by their commissioned leaders, the teachers. And this is as it should be.

The old civilization is passing away. Within its collapsing walls the foundations of the new civilization are being laid. The old was materialistic, aggressive, egoistic, and consequently cruel. It was outwardly splendid, even sumptuous, and efficient to the point of fetishism, yet it contained the seeds of death, for that which selfishly seeks its own must of necessity lose all. The great conception of human unity burned but dimly in the consciousness of the chief exponents of the old order. Superficial thinking and living had weakened both brain and emotional power, and the incessant craving for sensation led to waste on every plane.

It has been said that nothing can be wrought out in the daily life of a republic that has not first been put into its schools. It may then be askt, Have the schools of the United States so utterly failed in producing a high type of national life that the war is being hailed as the transformer of the schools into a life higher and nobler than they have yet manifested? My answer is that the schools have performed the great task assigned them better perhaps than any other social agency, but that a great national consciousness, conscience, and unification can only be accomplisht whenever a community activity knows itself as a functioning part of the great whole, dedicated to the welfare of that whole thru the rich, free, and equal development of all its individual units.

We have believed that we could live in a world made up of numerous divisions, separating ourselves for the most part from those not directly in touch with our family and business life. The civilization that has incarnated this sense of separation is necessarily falling to pieces, and the new civilization, if it is to last, must be informed with the spirit of unity, warmed with the currents of love, and glorified by the knowledge of truth. We must come to understand that every phase of life partakes of the educative process. We must saturate ourselves with the conviction that unless the school interprets the life of nature, the home, the church, the press, the counting-house, and the forum, it can scarcely be considered an educational institution at all, but can lay claim merely to imparting instruction in certain technical subjects.

The new civilization will emphasize the distinction between mere instruction and true education just as certainly as it will proclaim service as the reason for business existence.

The new civilization will recognize the right of each human being to a trained body and a trained mind, and it will also stress the spiritual reality in each, as the sovereign to which the trained body and mind must render instant and efficient service.

The civilization that is to be will be capable of expressing in human institutions the highest ideal of all the people, and it is apparent that the chief agent in the creation of this new structure must be the school.

The war has gone far toward providing the schools with fresh subject-matter, and it has quickened them to a sense of patriotic obligation. "The

linking of education to life," which has been striven for thru many decades, has come almost at once thru the stress of the great conflict thru which the world is passing to a fairer day.

War-modified education in America means an education sensitive to the needs of national development. War-modified education helps the child to train himself spiritually as the patriot and lover of his kind. War-modified education results in a surrender of personal rights in favor of the greatest of all rights—that of free cooperation in the service of the spirit of America.

The Junior Red Cross activities make the school children warriors of mercy, soldiers of healing, volunteers of helpfulness. The war savings societies enlist the schools as financing agents of the war; as economic factors in the solution of the nation's and the world's problem of justice enthroned upon victory; as bodyguards of the home, safeguarding its welfare; as builders in one of the world's greatest constructive efforts. These are examples of the intensive extension of the functions of the school into the public service, and their relation to the course of study modifies, in large measure, the subject-matter to be taught.

War-modified geography may well be called "war-transformed geography." History becomes a search for causes illustrated by the tragic events of the last four years. It traces the relation between the psychology and the biology of the various warring nations and includes a study of the religious, philosophic, and artistic development of the races which stand for the clashing national faiths of the hostile peoples. History, philosophy, psychology, and sociology are seen to be but parts of a many-faceted human study, and all are fused in the flame of an intellectual and moral devotion to the ideals for which the free peoples are fighting.

The great dream of human brotherhood, thrown upon the screen of history by the God of Nations when the American Republic was born, can come true in full splendor of universal application only thru the instrumentality of all the human beings living under the American flag, and this instrumentality can be thus perfected only by the development of the schools to the full measure of their opportunity for service. Straight thinking, clean living, hard work, joyful play, and mighty loving must characterize the individual citizen and the collective action of all the citizenry in a republic, and it is the mission of war-modified education to produce this individual type and collective development.

The nationalization of education as a part of its war modification is a problem pressing for solution. It must be evident to all thinking people that public education should have the dignity, power, and prestige that come from national recognition. But it is also clearly necessary to preserve a proper balance between national and local authority in the administration of educational affairs.

The National Education Association, recognizing the changes that must be brought about in American education as a result of the war, has undertaken the mighty task of preparing a national program, this program having been necessitated by the war emergency. The Commission of the National Education Association that has been intrusted with this duty will make a report during this meeting, and the commission lays its work before you as a proof of devotion to your interests, to the interests of the teaching profession at large, and to the welfare of the children of the world.

This national program for Education deals with:

1. The nature of the present crisis faced by the public schools of the United States.
2. The preparation, supply, and compensation of teachers.
3. The importance and needs of rural education.
4. A complete program of physical and health education.
5. Problems of immigrant education and adult illiteracy.
6. Compulsory continuation schools.
7. The necessity for a national department of education and national cooperation with the states in strengthening the public schools.

This program has been prepared at the cost of a large expenditure of labor and time on the part of the commission. It is its contribution to war-modified education. It explains a part, at least, of the way in which the new civilization must be built. It summons to its aid the thinking people of this and the other allied countries. It cooperates with the far-visioned, loyal-souled men and women of Great Britain, France, and Italy, and offers assistance to, and will gratefully receive aid from, all who can bring to it trained thinking and loving service in behalf of the child.

The commission glimpses the far-flung influence of unified international educational ideals and practices. It foresees that the creative soul within each nation can work best thru educational methods. It knows that character-building is the acid test of education in any nation, and that world-salvation can come only thru a world-exaltation of the meaning and practice of the august reality that we call "education." The commission is the servant of the common good. It is the extension of your vision, your powers, your zeal for sacrifice, your ability to build.

Your President submits to you the work of this commission as the greatest achievement of the educational year of 1917–18. It is also a prophecy of still greater advance, for the fulfilment of which you will be largely responsible.

But in additional ways the Association feels honored. It has been used as the transmitting medium of the government's wishes, and it rejoices in the fact that no appeal for national service has gone unheeded by this great body.

The sense of unity between the members of the teaching profession of the several states and the National Education Association has been extended

and quickened during the past year. Even in the remote places of our land the teachers have come to feel that there is a body thru which they can speak, in which they can function, by which they may make their needs known, and to which they can offer service and thereby extend their patriotic effort for the welfare of the nation.

Peace must be won from under the shadow of victorious swords. It can come only thru the triumph of the armies of the free nations on the battlefield. It can be retained only by a war-modified education which will be able to contribute to the majestic structure of the new civilization. Thru education must be developt the qualities that make for the immortality of nations. By education must be safeguarded the fruits of a righteous war. For education the nation must give and sacrifice, and to it it must pay homage.

As supreme builders of the new civilization I greet you. From the Mount of Vision, to which this Association has climbed, it can see the Promist Land of fruitful service. Enter in and possess it in the name of the childhood of the world, that the new civilization may be born of an impulse and developt thru a process that will guarantee its immortality.

As the bloody flower of war becomes transmuted into the rose of the dawn of a new day, let us fit ourselves to live worthily under the sunlight of the transformed era. Let the heralds of the dawn be the teachers of the world. Let us prepare ourselves for the triumph of a nobler citizenship. Let us know that the creation of such a citizenship is our task, our privilege, our coronation.

THE NEW PROGRAM OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION—AN OPPORTUNITY AND A RESPONSIBILITY

NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, HARRISBURG, PA.

Those who have made a careful study of the pupils in our public schools claim to have discovered that the two most common characteristics of high-school pupils are loyalty and patriotism. What I have to say on the new program of the National Education Association can best be said in a discussion of loyalty and patriotism as parts of the said program. Ordinarily these are thought of as emotions or affections, but when the will enters into them and makes them the law of life, they become virtues of the greatest value in the formation of character.

There was a time when our instruction in history, in so far as it had any bearing upon patriotism, consisted in teaching hatred of kings and of redcoats, as the British soldiers were nicknamed in our wars for independence. The followers of George Washington were called patriots. The

adherents of the mother-country called themselves loyalists. This distinction no longer exists. One hundred years of peace along our Canadian border have done much to obliterate the animosities of former days, and the present war has ended the antagonism between the mother-country and her offspring, as well as between France and England, which had been enemies for centuries. Today the French and the English, the Canadians and our own soldiers, are fighting side by side in the same great cause.

And yet the words patriotism and loyalty are not synonymous terms. You will recall that the lexicographer, Dr. Samuel Johnson, defined patriotism as the last refuge of a scoundrel. "But, let it be considered," adds his biographer, "that he did not mean a real and genuine love of our country but that pretended patriotism which so many in all ages and countries have made a cloak for self-interest." The counterfeit always presupposes the genuine coin. It is the duty as well as the privilege of the National Education Association to expose the counterfeit and to circulate the genuine coin. True patriotism expels selfishness. It is a law of the human heart that the nobler affections expel the baser passions, that love banishes hate, that love of home and kindred and friends and country displaces traits like greed and selfishness and makes treason and treachery impossible.

We have two types of teachers' meetings. The one type discusses tenure of office, schemes of retirement, higher salaries, and the effectiveness of strikes when seemingly just demands are not granted. At such meetings one hears much of loyalty to the profession, but seldom a word about better schools and the educational welfare of the children. The other type of meetings inaugurates discussions in which the self-interest of the teachers is forgotten or at least subordinated to higher motives. Genuine patriotism banishes the idea of strikes by the teachers in our public schools. The French speak of the army and the navy as the first line of defense and of the children in the schools as the second line of defense. True patriotism stresses the second line of defense as of equal importance with the army and the navy in promoting the future reign of law and liberty.

Can the National Education Association not cause the distinction between the two types of teachers' organizations to vanish by showing how wise a system of pensions, of tenure of office, of just taxation and compensation, can be made to give us better teachers, better schools, happier children, and greater efficiency in all our educational activities? Such an ideal is worthy of the best efforts of its officers and active members.

Unselfishness lies at the foundation of genuine patriotism and wholehearted loyalty. Patriotism is devotion to one's native or adopted country. The patriot is defined as one who loves his country and zealously supports and upholds its institutions and interests. It fills me with a thrill of joy to think that history and civics have been so taught in recent years that the boy by the time he reaches the high school says to himself: "I will live for my country, I will fight for it and, if need be, die in its defense." A million

of Uncle Sam's boys are now making the supreme exhibition of their patriotism upon the high seas and upon the soil of France.

Loyalty signifies a broader, tho not a more intense, devotion than patriotism. To be loyal is to be constant and faithful in any relation implying trust or confidence, as wife to husband, friend to friend, subject to ruler, etc. The loyalist is one who bears or claims to bear true allegiance to constituted authority. In time of rebellion or revolution loyalty means adherence to the constituted government. We speak of loyalty to truth, loyalty to the flag, loyalty to the school, even of loyalty to the National Education Association.

When loyalty roots itself in love of one's native land it intensifies the virtue of patriotism, a virtue that never was more genuine than at this time, and never put to severer tests than when the call came to cross the ocean and fight on foreign soil. For us who remain on this side of the ocean a severe test of patriotism is found in willingness to pay a just share of tax for the support of the government and the education of the people. The schools are facing a shortage of teachers, of funds, and of fuel. Can the National Education Association contribute toward the removal of these difficulties?

It is proposed that thru affiliation with the state associations we increase membership to 250,000 and inaugurate a lobby to secure a secretary of education in the cabinet and a federal appropriation of one hundred million dollars to be distributed among the states for school purposes. It would be easy to plan a scheme of school organization that would give our Association a membership of half a million or more. I wish to raise in your minds the question whether such a scheme of centralization would be desirable in the United States.

The National Education Association has always been a forum for the free discussion of conflicting views and theories in education, and I need not apologize for expressing my views on the future policy of the Association. I was an enthusiast for a secretary of education in the President's cabinet until my friends drew my attention to the probability of plunging the schools into the maelstrom of politics every four years, or at least with every exciting presidential election. It was further pointed out that a career of service such as Harris and Claxton have given would be impossible if the head of the nation's schools changed with every national administration. Our need of money for school purposes is so great that I am willing to accept federal aid with or without a secretary of education in the President's cabinet.

A professor in the University of Pennsylvania used to say that for solid achievement one year in the sixties is worth three in the thirties. The man of sixty no longer cherishes the visions and the day dreams of the man of thirty. He has come down out of the clouds and concentrates his energies upon things that he sees can be achieved. To a school man high in

the sixties the problem of prime importance in his line is how to keep the schools in operation during the coming year and how to maintain their efficiency in spite of the shortage of teachers and public funds. He is not speculating on what the education of America will be after the war. That sort of prophecy can well be left to university professors, who are not expected to carry out the theories which they consign to print. Every official who is responsible for the efficient administration of a system of schools is today asking, Whence shall we get money and teachers enough to have good schools? How can good schools be made better when the government is taking into its military and civil service the best young men and women, who would otherwise give their lives to teaching school? In the vicinity of munition plants and ship-building yards there are more children than seats at school. New schoolhouses are needed, and the question is how can we build new school buildings without issuing bonds, the issue of bonds being forbidden by Secretary McAdoo, who needs all our money for Thrift stamps and Liberty bonds. In my opinion the schools under state jurisdiction will be driven to accept money from the federal government, with or without a secretary of education in the cabinet, and on such other terms as the authorities at Washington choose to dictate. One hundred millions distributed among the states will be a help, but it will not suffice to make the needed increase of salaries and school accommodations.

I have been discussing with my friend the proposed affiliation of the Pennsylvania State Education Association with the National Education Association. At present the relation of the states to the federal government, and not the highly centralized government of France, typifies the relation of the state associations to this Association, and we have been living together in peace and harmony. Tie them together and see how they will fight. I prefer the present organization of the National Education Association because it gives the franchise at our business meetings to all active members and does not offer a select few the chance to play politics the entire year.

In my opinion the proposed house of delegates will give us a most cumbersome system of elections, diminish the interest in our midsummer meetings, furnish a splendid specimen of overorganization, and make room for endless friction over state rights and centralized power. At a time when teachers in their patriotic zeal have subscribed toward War Savings stamps and Liberty bonds until some can hardly pay their board bills, and when new drives call for still greater sacrifices, the drive for increast membership can be justified only in so far as this Association helps to solve the problems engendered by the war and banishes the demon of selfishness by stressing the virtues of loyalty and patriotism.

With traditions stretching back over half a century, with a treasury that has accumulated several hundred thousand dollars, with a membership

comprising the educational leaders of every state, with a program based upon the welfare of the child as its chief cornerstone, and with problems innumerable calling for solution, I look into the future with hope and with conviction that the National Education Association will continue to be the greatest educational organization in the world, and that it will continue to be a clearing-house for the best thought and the best efforts of its members both during the war and after.

THE LIFE-CAREER MOTIVE IN EDUCATION

WILLIAM L. ETTINGER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, NEW YORK, N.Y.

Since one of the most inspiring addresses delivered at the meeting of your Association in Boston in 1910 was a discussion of "The Life-Career Motive in Education" by the revered dean of American education, President Emeritus Charles W. Eliot, of Harvard University, I have undertaken to indicate somewhat briefly the content that might be appropriate to that title in terms of present-day school administration.

I am inclined to take as the expansion of my text John Milton's splendid definition of a complete education as one which "fits a man to perform justly, skillfully, and magnanimously all offices, both public and private, of both peace and war." Properly interpreted, Milton's words suggest a thoro, practical, honest, forward-looking type of education, in which the sordid standards of the slacker and the profiteer would have no place, because its whole spirit would be that of energetic, unselfish, skilful social service, sufficient not only to insure successful endeavor in the piping times of peace, but also to battle valiantly in the present moment for those excelling ideals of democracy which a brutal, rapacious militarism has placed in fearful jeopardy. The insistent demand of our people for an educational scheme coextensive with their whole life, generous in amount, and adequate in kind, is in harmony with the demand of our government that both in public and in private life its citizens ungrudgingly sacrifice their inclinations, their property, nay, even their lives, for the maintenance of American ideals.

The thrilling events of the last few years have tremendously accelerated changes in our political and social life. State rights have given way to federalized, socialized control; labor has asserted and maintained its equal footing with capital, and a widespread spirit of degrading mammon worship has been succeeded by a rebirth of idealistic patriotism such as the world has seldom, if ever before, witnest.

As might be expected, the most efficient instrumentality of democracy, the public school, has not escaped the social pressure, but we are so immerst in absorbing tasks that we often fail to recognize the kaleidoscopic changes going on about us. Only a few years ago, because of our naïve assumption

that all our pupils were destined to be bookkeepers, teachers, or presidents of the United States, prevocational education along industrial lines was unknown. The little vocational education that existed was on the defensive, our secondary-school work was separated from the business and industrial world by a yawning chasm, the adult worker was considered beyond the pale of our educational program, and the illiterate foreigner was a clannish pariah whose Americanization was left to chance.

Time will permit me to refer briefly to only a few of the educational changes in New York City made in response to the demand that the individual, of whatever age or status, may be free to fashion his career to meet both his own ideals and the demands of his country.

At a recent convention of vocational educators in New York City, Dr. Philander P. Claxton, United States Commissioner of Education, in a spirit of prophetic aspiration, stated that a time would come in the history of education, when elementary-school pupils would be brought into contact with the realities that form the bases of our industrial and commercial life; and that the day would come when school children would alternate between school and industry, so that theory taught in school would be put into practice in industry, and the pupils would return to school enricht with concrete examples of practice by which theory may be illumined. Dr. Claxton also exprest the hope that the time would come when boards of education would not only open the school buildings to wage-earners after school hours, but would open classes in stores and factories for those whose interest might best be served thereby.

Three years ago the elimination of pupils from the upper grades of our elementary schools and the demands of industry led us to experiment with industrial education in the grades, as a contrast experiment to numerous schools organized on a fraudulent Gary plan. Our controlling idea was that adolescent boys and girls, standing on the threshold of industrial life, should be groupt in prevocational schools in which they would receive, in addition to instruction in formal subjects, such instruction and training in constructive activities as would develop aptitudes and abilities of distinct economic value.

There are ten selected high schools in New York City that offer cooperative courses, in which 650 students of both sexes alternate weekly between high school and industry. A high-school teacher, called coordinator, is selected by the high-school principal to correlate or link up the work of the school and the industry. Special progressive courses based upon the charting of the business of the cooperating firm have been arranged for each type of industry. These 650 students are in employment with 170 firms of the highest standing in various subdivisions of manufacturing, commerce, and transportation, which offer our high-school students an opportunity to secure a combination of practical training and business or industrial experience.

During the past school year these students earned over $125,000. In these days of the high cost of living explanation is unnecessary to show how this amount has been of great help in retaining high-school students in school. The cooperative course offers the solution of many of the perplexing problems in education, both vocational and cultural, and solves in part the problem of vocational guidance and placement.

A most interesting zone of educational expansion is that intended for children in employment still amenable to the compulsory-education law, and that for adults of various types, whether they be the men or women of foreign birth who feel the need of a knowledge of English speech and of institutional life to make them participating Americans, the men subject to the draft who wish to perfect themselves for admission to a technical branch of the service, or the men and women in industry, commerce, or municipal employment who wish to better themselves. Literally we provide for the waitress, the office boy, the salesgirl, the baker, the artisan, the shipbuilder, and at the present time also the enlisted man. They are taken care of in day continuation classes.

These day continuation classes may be groupt into six types:

Compulsory continuation classes require the attendance of working children who are non-graduates and less than sixteen years of age. During four hours per week these children receive instruction to insure general culture and either prevocational or vocational training, depending upon whether or not the pupils have found their vocation.

Industrial extension classes are practically classes for apprentices in the skilled trades. The subjects taught are shop mathematics, related English, mechanical drawing, and the mechanics of the industry. Thus 500 civilian apprentices are instructed in the Brooklyn Navy Yard, and smaller groups have been organized in the shipyards about the New York harbor and in the yards of the Long Island and Baltimore and Ohio railroads.

Commercial extension classes have been organized in large commercial establishments and department stores for instruction in such subjects as stenography, typewriting, salesmanship, and merchandizing.

General improvement classes have been organized in department stores for junior employees less advanst than those in the preceding groups.

Improvement classes give instruction of secondary grades to students, such as civil-service employees, whose working hours enable them to have free time in the late afternoon which they desire to use for self-improvement.

Other classes aim to Americanize the large number of foreigners in our city, as well as to educate in institutional life the newly enfranchised women voters.

New York City is the great entry port for immigrants and the great melting-pot of the country. Because of its resident foreign groups, it is the largest Jewish city in the world, the second largest Italian city, and the

third largest Russian city. Within our pupil population we include approximately sixty different nationalities, and therefore the problem of benevolent assimilation is essentially the work of our public-school system. The present war conditions, including the necessity of throttling German propaganda, have meant the extension and socialization of this work. During the term just closed the average number of such classes in the evening schools was 550. In addition there were approximately 60 classes organized in the day continuation schools.

In our evening schools there were organized about 60 classes for men subject to the draft call, who wisht to equip themselves for admission to technical branches of the service in such lines as machine-shop practice, electrical work, sheet, metal, and foundry work, radio and buzzer work, camouflage, aëroplane work, and automobile mechanics. At the present moment, in response to the request of the War Department, we are using one of our best-equipt vocational schools to train a contingent of 400 enlisted men in similar lines of work for service "over there."

I hold no brief for a type of education in which culture and utility are mutually exclusive. An educational program founded upon the *Life-Career Motive* does not imply a scheme of gross utilitarianism. There is no divorce between labor and culture. In this materialistic age we must hold fast to our cultural heritage, but above all we must not fail to afford that equality of educational opportunity which is the fundamental thesis of democracy. Our ideal must be service rendered loyally and generously. There can be no conflict between the educational needs of our people and the demands of the government. To the extent that our school systems are responsive to and coextensive with the fondest hopes and the highest aspirations of our people, they constitute a bulwark against which no liberty-killing militarism will ever prevail.

THE NATION AND THE CRISIS IN ITS SCHOOLS

JOSEPH SWAIN, CHAIRMAN OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION COMMITTEE ON SALARIES, TENURE, AND PENSIONS; PRESIDENT OF SWARTHMORE COLLEGE, SWARTHMORE, PA.

THREATENED COLLAPSE OF PROFESSION

Apart from the prosecution of the war itself, there is no more urgent problem now before the American people than that created by the threatened collapse of the teaching profession. Collapse is an extreme word, but so is the emergency it describes. The drafting into other work of large numbers of the most capable teachers, the continual opening of new doors of opportunity to thousands of others, the utterly inadequate financial provision for the majority of the remainder—these are no longer matters for debate. They are facts. And they are facts ominous with disaster for the nation.

If the American people cannot be made to see the situation and to supply an early and drastic remedy, we shall run the risk, even tho we win the war, of losing all that makes the war worth winning. Our schools are the spring and origin of our democracy. Of what avail will it be to spend our blood in defending the forms of democratic society, if the life that is to fill and energize them is lost? And if our schools suffer, it will be lost. It is futile to declare that this is a matter for the future. If the war has taught us anything, it ought to have taught us that the future becomes the present with fatal rapidity, and that failure to provide for that future in advance is criminal. Foresight, above all else, is what is wanted. The American people now have a supreme opportunity to exercise foresight in the matter of their schools. Will they exercise it? Or will they kill the goose that lays the golden eggs?

A WAR OF SCHOOLMASTERS

To the importance of technical education in those branches immediately connected with the prosecution of the war the country is awake. But this is not merely a war of chemistry and engineering, a war of technical knowledge pitted against technical knowledge; it is a war of cultures and ideals, of ideas pitted against ideas. In this sense it is literally a war of schoolmasters; and only the hope of victory in this latter struggle makes the sacrifices of the other conflict seem worth while. But to achieve that victory the ideas and ideals for which we stand must be kept pure and free-flowing at their source. For that deeper war behind the other is bound to go on long after the physical strife has ceast. Everywhere men make the capital mistake of supposing that the good or evil of this war is a thing that will be definitely settled the day victory is attained and the treaty of peace signed. There could not be a grosser error.

The upshot of this war for humanity, the final good or bad of it, is going to depend on what the nations *do* as a result of it, on whether it gets the better of the brain of humanity by stunning it, or whether the brain of humanity gets the better of it by understanding it. But this, in the main, lies with the will and the intellect of the next generation, and the will and the intellect of the next generation lie, in no small measure, in the keeping of the teachers of the present.

MARKEDLY SUPERIOR TEACHERS DEMANDED

It has become a truism that the Germany of today is the product of the German schoolmasters of yesterday. Just as certainly the America of tomorrow, perhaps the world of tomorrow, will be the product of the American teachers of today. What, then, if the American teaching force of today comes to consist of an inferior selection from our present teachers, supplemented by high-school girls of no experience, of no special training, of temporary tenure, and of only passing interest in their work!

America must not delude herself into believing that she can put her children into the hands of teachers of this type and yet expect them to turn out a generation of statesmen capable of grappling with the problems of what promises to be the most critical period in the social and political history of mankind. To achieve that result the teachers must be, on the contrary, not only not inferior, but markedly superior, *the best that can be had*, not merely in training and intellectual equipment, but in character, imagination, and social vision.

Yet at the present hour practically all forces are making in the direction, not of this desired superiority, but of markt inferiority. So strong is this tendency that it is possible to predict with accuracy what will happen to the teaching profession in America if some radical remedy is not soon applied. The teachers of the country will fall roughly into three classes, classes which were already being defined during the decade and a half of sharp rise in prices prior to 1914. The war merely accelerated enormously their formation.

POVERTY DETERIORATES THE PROFESSION

First, there will be what we may call the *endowed class*. This will be a small one and confined in the main to the higher branches of education. It will consist of a certain number of financially independent persons who will continue teaching because of the pleasure of the work, or the intellectual and social prestige flowing from connection with a college or university. However highly we may think of individuals within this group, the idea is repugnant to every democratic instinct we possess of having any part of our educational system pass under what would inevitably become a kind of upper-caste control.

Second, there will be what we may call the *part-time class*. This will consist of an immense number who will give only a share of their time and energy to teaching: who will teach, but who will not expect their teaching salary to support them. Few outside the profession have any idea how largely the teachers of the country already belong to this class, from the many who earn a few dollars on the side, to the few who frankly make their teaching incidental and double or treble their salaries by outside work. The effect of this state of affairs on the profession calls for no comment.

And then there will be a third class. For it there is no satisfactory name. Were the term not certain to be misunderstood, it might be called the *sweated class*. Perhaps the *exploited class* would be less open to objection. It will consist in part of teachers who, thru age, or poor health, or family responsibilities, or what not, will be able neither to leave the profession nor to add materially on the side to their teaching income, with the result that they will be compelled to take what is offered them and lower their standard of living accordingly. Such teachers will deserve nothing but sympathy. They will be slaves in outward condition but not in spirit. And much the

same will be true of those teachers who, thru a mistaken sense of duty combined with an ignorance of political economy, remain at their desks when they could leave them. But it will not be true of those teachers who, with both power to do otherwise and knowledge of the consequences of their choice, accept a standard of living below the minimum of what makes genuinely human life, as distinguisht from mere living, possible. Such teachers will be slaves in spirit as well as in outward fact, and their action will degrade not only their own profession but the working world as a whole as certainly as child labor, or coolie labor, or convict labor, degrades it.

These, then, are the three classes. Is this country willing to have its schools, which it has long pointed to with pride as the source of its democracy pass into the hands of an endowed class, or of a part-time class, or of a slave class? If so, democracy in America deserves to perish. And it will perish.

THE REMEDY

What, then, is the remedy?

There is just one remedy—tho there may seem to be two, owing to the two quite opposite ways thru which it may be attained.

But before coming to the remedy and the methods of attaining it, let us notice what, emphatically, is not the remedy. The remedy is not to raise teachers' salaries sporadically, here a little and there a little, 25 per cent in this enlightened city, 5 per cent in that benighted one, $500 a year in some industrially booming section, where teachers have grown scarce, $50 a year in some out-of-the-way corner of the land where supply and demand in teachers has not been perceptibly affected. "Supply and demand"—that goes to the heart of the matter. *The critical situation of our schools will never be genuinely remedied so long as teachers' services are regarded as a commodity to be purchast at the cheapest obtainable rate in the open market.* That on the whole is the present attitude toward the teacher. That attitude has got to end, or our democracy will end. The teacher must come to be taken for what he is: a public servant performing a task of unsurpast importance to the nation, and on that account just as fully entitled to adequate compensation, or its equivalent, as the soldier, the legislator, or the judge.

But this is simply a more roundabout way of saying that education is a national matter. The man who denies that at this hour of the day is not worth listening to. The man who denies that education is a national matter is capable of denying that our Army and Navy are national matters, of thinking that our states and towns and cities, left to themselves, could carry on the war. Which is not to imply for a moment that education is *merely* a national matter. May the time never come when the people in this locality or that lose control over the teaching of their own children. But the child is of concern to a wider region than the place in which he is born; and the wealth of a community is no measure of the promise of its

human material. Can we permit boys and girls, perhaps of rare gifts, just because they happen to have been born on the outskirts of the country, to have only the outskirts of an education? Those boys and girls are the nation's highest assets. The nation must do its share toward bearing the burden of their training.

But suppose the nation cannot be made to see its duty. Then there is only one other way: the teachers, by concerted action and the application of the principle of collective bargaining, must compel the nation to wake up.

But surely this will not be necessary. The war is training the national imagination to see things on a new scale. It is no longer a day when we say, "This ought to be done. We will do it, *provided we can get the money.*" It is a day rather when we say of whatever is vital to the public welfare, "Let this be done." And then we get the money.

It is a day of big things. It is a day preeminently when those who are serving the state must be granted the right of way. The teachers of the country are not only serving the state now; they have been serving it all their lives. They are the captains of the army of understanding; not alone of that technical understanding upon which military victory depends, but of that larger human understanding upon which depends the whole hope and future of the world. If we spend billions to save the world, can we not spend millions to make the world worth saving? If we pour forth our treasure without stint to those who shape our steel and iron, can we not grant at least a living wage to those who are molding our life itself? The nation must come to the rescue of its schools. For a nation without education is a coast without a lighthouse.

THE NATION AT WAR

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You will, of course, remember that as soon as we entered the Great War the President called for the organization of the Council of National Defense. This was not possible without the organization of the state councils; but that has been accomplisht in all of the forty-eight states, either by legislative enactment or by executive order. The next step was for the states to organize the counties, and this has now been done very generally. There remains the ultimate unit of the school district; and the object of this great series of war conferences that I have just attended in a dozen western states was to organize there, as in other states, community councils with the schoolhouse as the place of meeting and the school district as the ultimate unit of organization. These community councils are organized essentially for war work in a federated system heading up in Washington. The Council

of National Defense is now focusing its attention on community councils, properly so called; and they are in successful operation thruout many parts of the country.

Senator Overman said the other day that there are four hundred thousand German spies in the United States; surely enough to go around. When I went into the different parts of the country to see what the states were doing in rallying their vast resources for the winning of this greatest of all crusades, I wisht for the loan of a spy that he might with me "spy out the land," hear what I heard, see what I saw, and then report to his Kaiser truthfully (if he could) his observations in the form of a letter.

The first trip they sent me on took me down to Dixie. I was glad to go down there because I was born in the South, and I wanted to see for myself just how far the German Emperor's nefarious program had succeeded in stirring up the black man against the white.

Major Moton, the distinguisht negro who succeeded Booker Washington as president of Tuskegee Institute, has said that during the brief period of this war and by reason of this present war more has been accomplisht in the improvement of relations between the blacks and whites in the South than during his entire lifetime previously. German spies please note carefully!

Beneath all superficial disturbances there is a strong bond between the southern white man and the negro. This war has greatly strengthened that bond, and I predict that in consequence of such state-council movements as that of the "Sumter County plan" in South Carolina, the race problem is going to be far less acute in the South in the future than it has been in the immediate past.

In North Carolina they believe that even doctors have their uses, so they have organized the physicians of the state into a patriotic league, and nowadays when a doctor goes into a tar-heel home to relieve a patient who is shaking with fever and ague, he not only gives him quinine, but while he has him down he injects into him the spiritual hypodermic of a more intelligent patriotism, so that if the doctor has luck the man not only gets up well but gets up better—a better patriot than when he went to bed.

They have also organized the women down there; they have what might be called a company of three-minute women, on the principle, I suppose, that women can say more in three minutes than the four-minute men can in four (and say it much more to the purpose). They have put these three-minute women at the telephones; it is easy enough to get the cooperation of the telephone companies. So every day at noon when Johnny Hayseed glues his ear to the telephone (if I use slang it is because I am a college man), he has discovered that he not only gets the latest market quotations on "butter'n'eggs," and corn, and cotton, and hay, but that "central" drops into his ear at the same time just a little dose of the patriotic "dope" that Uncle Sam thinks he needs at the moment. It works like a charm.

Speaking of "publicity," however, I rather think that Connecticut, under the leadership of George Brinton Chandler, is leading the country in its efficient methods of public education. They have bulletin boards all over the state, costing $3.00 apiece. They emblazen these boards, for example, with our poster "The Prussian Blot." Our council has already distributed 340,000 copies thruout the country and we have more for proper distribution. It is exceedingly difficult to explain by word of mouth to popular audiences just what the "Prussian Blot" means. You can do it, however, with a poster, and Connecticut has lit up the land with these posters, which any man or woman can comprehend in five minutes. It is a plan that ought to be widely copied thruout the nation.

Missouri has begun to "show" the rest of the nation how to conduct an efficient state council. She is producing 10 per cent more foodstuffs than ever before; last year 750,000 acres were put into corn that had never been put into any crop before.

If my German spy had crisscrost the country with me he would have found the planters of Louisiana concerned about their sugar crop, not for what they could make out of it, but for what they could do with it in feeding our boys and our Allies. At the opposite corner of the country he would have found the lumbermen of Washington and Oregon concerned, not about what they could get out of their lumber, but about how they could get the spruce out of the forests to help Uncle Sam build his airships. All thru the country he would have found the people determined to support Woodrow Wilson and Charles Evans Hughes in their endeavor to *get* the men who have hindered our aircraft-building program. Further, in Massachusetts and Connecticut he would have found the great men of those states giving practically all of their time to the war organization of the country; building up, for example, a great war-emergency employment service that will enable New England to handle its labor supply effectively by distributing labor, with labor's free consent, from the points of surplus supply to the points of the greatest need. Crossing the country thru the great Northwest and dropping down with me into the expansive grain fields of the Central West, he would have found the farmer concerned in "speeding up" production; just as in California, if he would go home with me, he would find captains of industry along the Pacific Coast "speeding up" ship production in huge plants that have sprung up, as it were, over night.

We are beginning to put ourselves into this war, and God knows it is high time. America must awake! Away with the false and treasonable self-praise—false as to the fact, treasonable to our Allies—which boasts of what we have done! We have not done nearly what we should have done. Welcome the heart-searching and the repentance for our faithless lukewarmness; welcome to the girding up of the loins until every last ounce of our energy is thrown to the aid of those tensely strained Allies who have

born the brunt and the shock of the battle for us for almost the terrible length of our own Civil War!

The most contemptible man that I meet in my journeys is the copperhead parasite—the man who, instead of asking, as every true patriot must, how much we can put into this war, is continually whining about what we are going to get out of it. I will let your uncle Lafe Young, of Iowa, answer him:

> Every traitor and every near traitor in the United States is inquiring, "What are we going to get out of this war?"
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> Well, among other things, we are going to get a better grade of patriotism than we have been having. . . . .
>
> Out of this war, we are going to get a new United States. We are going to hate nobody, but we are going to be prepared to fight whenever necessary.
>
> We are going to have the freest country in the world, but we are not going to allow any traitorous highbrows to set their own standards of freedom by which to convert freedom into treason.
>
> There are a good many other things "we are going to get out of this war." When the soldier boys come home, we are going to have two millions of patriots who, having fought for the flag, will make good citizens and thoro patriots.

Already we clasp hands across the sea with our mother-land. The virtual alliance in which we find ourselves with England is a logical conclusion far too long delayed. It is only the shallowest and narrowest view of history that regards our Revolutionary War as other than one in the long sequence of the revolts of English-speaking people against tyrants.

Of course we should not limit our alliance to England; it should include all of the genuine democracies of the world, no matter what their form of government.

Most of all we should conclude forever an inseparable alliance with our sister-Republic *la belle France!* It is a "soul of goodness" in the evil of this war that America, long blind, is at last awake to the spiritual beauty of her twin sister across the Atlantic. "Frivolous," "frail," even "decadent," we have called her; to realize now, in the incandescent light of this war, that what we called frivolity is but the laughing, rippling surface of a nobility as deep as the ocean; that what we called frailty was but her gay "camouflage" for sinews of unbending steel; and that instead of decadence France has since 1870 enjoyed a renaissance, has risen and climbed and stood upon glorious resurrection heights from which now she beckons and bids us to climb up and stand at her side. To commemorate the centenary of our independence she sent her great bronze gift across the water and stood it up in New York Harbor. We are now sending our boys by the million to aid her in the establishment of her own independence, and to aid her further in her gigantic task of setting up on the watchtowers of Europe her own radiant and heroic monument of liberty enlightening the world.

DEMOCRACY EVERY DAY

JOHN COLLIER, PRESIDENT, NATIONAL COMMUNITY CENTER ASSOCIATION, NEW YORK, N.Y.

American-wise in the true, often forgotten sense—American-wise and not Teuton-wise—we will bear our part in the war to make democracy safe in this world.

And so it is that we have done. President Wilson is today a world-leader, not merely in the political sense, but far more greatly in a sense moral and human, because he has interpreted to us our own genius, because he has shown us the way. It is President Wilson who in the solitude of his own thought, as revealed in his acts even more than in his words, has determined that not merely should America do her own warrior part in this world-war, that not merely should we win this war—and we shall win it—but that in winning the war we should pledge ourselves to such ends, commit ourselves to such methods, as would restore our spiritual birth-right, our destiny, to us. We cannot doubt that President Wilson is conscious of this intent. We are going to win this war by methods of democracy. Perhaps no other nation has with deliberation reacht such a decision and cumulatively put it into effect.

Assuming that President Wilson has prophesied for the nations, what has been his meaning? His meaning is not just rhetorical or poetic. It is not winning the war thru democracy if we merely lead all the people to feel favorable toward the war, to feel ecstatic about far dreams that ever haunt the brains of peoples, or to feel friendly toward those who are making the decisions and doing the work of the war. There is no evidence that all these conditions are not found even in Germany today. No transient emotional state, no elation or narcosis such as comes to heroes and martyrs, can itself constitute winning the war thru democracy.

If the American people are to win this war thru methods of democracy, it must be thru millions of conscious mental judgments which involve the taking of responsibility by individual citizens for things vital to the carrying on of the war; the taking of that responsibility and then the conscious, voluntary, and patient bearing of that burden whose significance we understand—the burden of detailed things which men and women and children can do; the bearing of one another's burdens, made heavier thru the war; the burden of sustained will, but even more the burden of sustained thinking directed toward the great ends, domestic and world-wide, of this war.

And so we come to the plan of community councils of national defense. This plan aims to win the war thru democracy. It involves manifold adjustments—permanent adjustments if we will make them such—in the direction of constructive citizenship. It goes far beyond the purpose of merely repressing a bad state and insuring a good state of mind. The

object of the community council of national defense is to create modified social arrangements by which the people, the ordinary folks, the people knowing each other as neighbors, may gather in continuous consultation, may do continuous team work within neighborly areas, and may gradually, knowing the full momentousness of what they do, assume responsibility for the prosecution of the war.

This we have certainly learned from Germany: A nation or people may be complexly organized, prosperous, with the birth-rate high, the mortality low, with a high sense of well-being, and still it is possible for that nation to be slowly transformed into a nation of slaves. We know now that it is not democracy to have a perfectly lubricated social machine, that there is no democracy in the long run unless the average man, thru his collective business, gets a greater fulness of life thru being a partner in that business.

And the plan of community councils of national defense is a recognition of the principle that the joining together of fulness of life for the individual with social efficiency can be had, under modern conditions, only thru a decentralization both of government and of business, thru a restoration of power and responsibility to the local community, yet in such a way as to conserve the values of standardization, of overhead service, of nation-wide team work. Thru community councils we are nationalizing the neighborhood, we are decentralizing the nation, we are seeking a martial victory; but far beyond it we are seeking for our people the restoration of the life of the spirit, for our children the restoration of great opportunity. We are bringing into sunlight and power and use the underground stream of our own human nature. Thucydides told the truth: a civilization menast by death discovers itself. It may be that the answer to the question of whether war is forever ended waits on the event which may take place within the German spirit when Germany is utterly beaten and knows that she is facing death. Her birthright remains, buried deep, where she forswore it nearly two generations ago.

A final word. Community workers are few, teachers are legion, teachers are everywhere. The teachers are in immediate potential contact with America as a whole. If the teachers of America would take into their brains and hearts this vision and reality of community councils of defense, as we have intimated it tonight, as the Council of National Defense has elaborated it; if they would brood upon this idea in terms of the school and the school neighborhood, then there would arise a vast, adequate life-defense army here at home. For with the teachers would come the people. If the teachers fully meet this opportunity for the restoration of democracy, there will be no longer any doubt of success. We must each decide—America must decide: "I shall have lost this war unless I shall have saved my own soul in winning this war."

EDUCATION AND OUR DEMOCRACY

W. C. BAGLEY, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N.Y.

It has been the conviction, shared by all of the members of the commission, that the present crisis has brought to those responsible for public education both unprecedented responsibilities and unprecedented opportunities. Two great facts have stood out sharp and clear in all of our discussions: The first is the marvelous awakening of the national consciousness, the sweeping away of the old divisions between sections of the country and groups of the population, and the birth of a new, fresh, and vigorous sense of national unity. The second great fact is the rapid growth and development of a new and persuasive and comprehensive meaning for the word democracy.

The first of these great movements—the development of the new nationalism—has created almost overnight an educational need of which we have hitherto been only dimly conscious. It is the imperative need of educational efficiency upon a national scale, and the parallel requirement of programs and policies that are framed with the needs of the nation primarily in mind. We have become suddenly aware that it does make a difference whether all of the people of the country can think together and act together. We have become suddenly aware that educational backwardness and intellectual stagnation in any part of the country may handicap the progress and imperil the safety of the nation as a whole. With seven hundred thousand illiterate young men subject to the draft, the welfare of the schools in every locality and the adequacy of the education provided for every type of child have become matters of national concern. When we of the educational world are astounded to learn that there have been hundreds of communities in this country where boys and girls have grown to manhood and womanhood in utter ignorance of American ideals and institutions, ignorant of the very language of our country, and even nurtured upon alien ideals brought to them thru the medium of an alien tongue, it is pretty clear that we have been thinking of education and planning for education too exclusively in the terms of our circumscribed local units. And when we find entire contingents of our United States Army unable to understand commands given to them in the language of their country, unable in some cases to understand any language save that of our principal enemy, it is pretty clear that the doctrine of local autonomy in education needs some very radical modification.

But it is not alone the revelations of the draft and the discovery of centers of active enemy propaganda in various sections of the country that point to the imperative need of a national aim in education. Again almost overnight the position of our country with reference to other nations has been radically transformed. From a sequestered and in many ways

self-sufficient people we have suddenly assumed a position of prime significance in a new family of nations. Whatever may have been the insufficiencies of our educational system under the older order, they concerned ourselves alone. Whether we will or no, that day of complacency has past, never to return. It will make a difference now, not only to ourselves, but to the free peoples who have fought for us and with us, whether 30 or 50 or 100 per cent of our schools are efficient. Our people constitute the richest and strongest of the great democracies. In the coming federation of free nations they must bear a responsibility for the preservation and strengthening of the democratic ideal—a responsibility commensurate with their strength and their wealth. Upon the way in which our people think and feel and act from this time forth will depend conditions and issues that reach far beyond our own borders and comprehend vastly more than our own happiness and welfare and progress. When we were an isolated and self-sufficient people we could temporize with the educational problem. We could lament the shameful neglect of our rural and village schools, which enrol more than one-half of the nation's children, and take it out in lamenting. We could regret that we were not able to solve this great problem which lies closer to the root and source of our national life than any other problem in the realm of education. The time for regrets and lamentations is past; the time for action has come.

We have temporized with the problem of preparing teachers until we have the unenviable reputation of giving less attention to the problem than any other great nation, and no problem is fraught with greater significance to the welfare of our schools and to the responsibilities that they represent. We have temporized with the health problem and the problem of adult illiteracy. We have temporized with the problem of furnishing educational stimulus and direction to the great masses of our boys and girls who leave school and enter bread-winning employment before their habits have been formed and their ideals of life and conduct firmly establisht.

And it is only fair to say that we have temporized because we have had to temporize. Our system of school support has been such that we have had to depend almost entirely upon local revenues; our system of school administration has been such that we have had to depend almost entirely upon local initiative. As a result our programs and policies have been framed to meet the local needs and fit the local purse. If a community wisht to have good schools and could pay the price, it usually had good schools. If a community was indifferent to education, it had, in general, the privilege of neglecting its schools. If a community was poor but ambitious, it did the best that it could with its slender resources. And because in general our thickly settled communities are rich and our sparsely settled communities are poor the most glaring inequities of education have prevailed.

But all this represents in reality an unnecessary situation. While it is true that there are markt inequalities among various sections of the

country in respect to per capita wealth, it is also true that the country as a whole is very far from poor. We can have something akin to an equality of educational opportunity if our people only say the word. We can have a good school in every locality, and mature, well-prepared and permanently employed teachers in every school. If our people say the word, we can within a decade solve the rural-school problem. We can put into our rural and village schools two hundred thousand teachers who can, who will, do for rural America and for the nation as a whole what the village dominies have done for Scotland, and what the rural schoolmasters have done for Denmark and Norway; two hundred thousand teachers who will make these rural schools of ours, these lonely outposts of culture, what they should be, strategic centers of national life and national idealism. For outposts tho they may be in one sense, in another and a deeper sense these little schools, of all of our educational institutions, are closest to what is formative and virile and abiding in our national life.

And if the people only say the word, the next decade may easily see the great problem of adolescent education well on the road toward a satisfactory solution. If England in this most critical hour of her history can deliberately decide to advance the limit of compulsory continuation schooling to the age of eighteen, if France, struggling so bravely to defend not only herself but the entire world against a ruthless aggression, can even in the midst of that struggle plan to keep her boys under educational direction until the age of twenty, shall we, living in comparative security and abundance, confess that we are unequal to the task? I repeat that if our people will only say the word we can within a decade attain to a high measure of educational efficiency on a nation-wide scale. It is the judgment of your commission that we should urge our people to say that word and say it quickly. After all, it means only an extension of a principle that they have long since firmly establisht as a basis for the free schools of a democracy—the principle, namely, that it is just and equitable to tax the entire wealth of a community for the education of all of the community's children. Commerce and industry have long since been nationalized. Of all our collective enterprises education alone remains hampered and constrained by the narrow confines of an obsolete conception. But now with this new national awakening we find that state boundaries can be easily and quickly transcended. The golden hour of American education has struck. The opportunity is here and the need is compelling to employ the resources of the nation for the education of the nation's children. We have a national problem to solve that transcends all state and local problems. We have international obligations to discharge which will call for the very highest level of enlightened intelligence in the body politic. And we have in the nation something that neither the states nor the local communities have developt in like measure, namely, a system and policy of taxation which distributes the burden of collective enterprises in the

most equitable fashion that the mind of man has yet been able to devise.

It is but natural that there are those among our people who will look askance at a change in our educational system which makes the national treasury an important source of school revenues. There are sincere and well-informed men and women in this audience who have grave fears that federal cooperation in the support of public schools will mean federal control and the domination of a hidebound bureaucracy. I have even heard exprest a fear that national support for education will Prussianize our great democracy.

The members of this commission respect these doubts and fears. But they also believe, not only that every worthy feature of local school control may be perpetuated, but that local initiative may be healthfully stimulated and local interest in and responsibility for education greatly augmented by the kind of federal cooperation that they propose. Personally I do not share the fear that the nationalization of our schools will Prussianize our people. In the first place, I do not think that anything could Prussianize our people. Prussianism is only superficially a form of organization; fundamentally it is a disease, a moral lesion which has cut away every sentiment of decency and humanity, which has eaten from the social mind the spiritual and moral values of life, which has glorified the material and left the brute supreme. Germany has not needed even a federal system of education to spread this disease among her people. Her unit of school control, like ours, is the state, and not the nation.

France has the most highly centralized and nationalized educational system in the world. Has the nationalization of her schools Prussianized France? England is nationalizing her schools today. Will England's new schools Prussianize the English people? We have nationalized our railroads and many of our industries. We have nationalized our Army. Do we find in our national life today anything that smacks of the Hun?

It is the conviction of this commission that the nation may participate in the support of education without involving the dangers of bureaucracy and autocratic control. It is further the conviction of the commission that these dangers, if they exist, may be the more readily avoided if the initiative in promoting this principle of national support is taken by the National Education Association. We may be very sure that this movement is coming. Some individual or organization is bound, some have already essayed, to take the leadership. This responsibility falls naturally to our Association. Shall we accept the plain challenge, or shall we lie back and let someone else do the work? It is the belief of the commission that you will have but one answer to that question.

TRAINING FOR NATIONAL SERVICE

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When the Congress of the United States of America, acting upon the recommendations of the President, on April 6, 1917, was compelled to declare war against the imperial German government because of its ruthless acts, the American people faced the determination of an issue which was the most vital in their whole history and was fraught with greater significance than any other act of theirs to the interests of the free peoples of the entire world. The final decision by the duly appointed agents of the people to take up arms against the enemy of civilization was reacht deliberately, with due concern about our attitude and our obligations to other liberty-loving peoples, and with clear recognition of the burden that we were assuming and of the load that we were to carry thru to the end.

Every patriotic American, and there is no other American, is lifted up in these days when he reflects that no future historian and no nation will ever be able to charge that our country entered this conflict thru any motive of mere self-interest. The history of nations records no more glorious or unselfish act than our declaration of war.

We had no jeweled crown and no burnisht scepter to preserve. All the nations of the earth know well enough—enemies, neutrals, and allies alike—the reward we expect. They know that there is now no bargain to be made with us. They know that this great people does not traffic in human liberty and Christian civilization. They know that we mean by our treasure, by our blood, by every supreme sacrifice, to see to it that out of this struggle comes a well-ordered world. They know that we believe in morality and the righteousness of nations and that we mean to bring offenders to the bar of international justice according to the exalted standards of human and of national life in which we believe. They know that we mean, before we are thru, to hunt down the beasts among nations and to compel "by force and yet more force," if necessary, the acceptance and observance by all peoples of the earth with whom we deal, of those great fundamental principles of liberty, justice, and humanity which have made us and which, please God, shall keep us a free nation worthy of the name.

And if it is true that the reward we seek is known to all men, the part that we are inevitably to play is equally clear. Whether we wish it or not, the balance of power lies in our hands and the measure of responsibility now rests equally upon our shoulders. The victory that is to be won must be won—the whole world now knows it—by the strength, the wisdom, and the self-sacrifice of the American people. We can make that statement without undue pride; it is but fact, solemn, weighted fact.

When the avowed purposes of ourselves and our Allies have been accomplisht, when the victory has been won, a new world will face us—a

world in which we shall take our rightful place at the counsel table of nations. Our position as a political power and our relations to other governments will take on new meaning. Our commanding position in the world, our philosophy of life and government, the very righteousness of the cause for which we fight, will bring us new responsibilities. How are we to meet them?

In the first and last analysis the responsibility of the nation is the responsibility of her schools. Our system of education must lay the foundation for the future policy of the nation. We have witnest within the last four years the fruition of the long-vaunted system of German education. We have seen how completely a whole people has been deluded by a philosophy of life and a theory of government nourisht in its schools and universities. No better proof is needed that the schools do determine the trend of a nation. I have time for but a brief generalization as to how we may best articulate our work as teachers with the new world that lies before us.

We must stop quarreling about the relative values of educational systems. For the past twenty-five years at least we have been wrangling over the virtues of the classics and the virtues of the so-called modern school. Is it not about time for us to admit on all hands that the world is getting big enough for a multitude of educational theories and systems? There is to be room enough in our future educational world for the classicist and the modernist.

We never stood more in need of a study of the ancients than we do today. A few years ago we and other liberty-loving peoples like us reasoned ourselves into the fatuous belief that world-peace was approaching because we willed it so. The most momentous and the most disastrous fact in modern history was the failure of free peoples to foretell and adequately to prepare for this conflict. How mankind shall be governed is the issue of the ages and the one great outstanding fact of world-history.

The new world that we are to shape and control must thru its schools saturate the minds of whole peoples and especially of vast numbers of intellectual leaders with the clear lessons of the past. Let us have done with condemning the classics. Let us study all that *has been* in the world. Let us remember that the past makes the future. Let us remember that the inheritance of our fathers is worthless if we are not able correctly to interpret it.

And while we look to the past, we must live in the present and build for the future. War, with all its horrors, has its virtues. It clarifies our thinking. It centers our thought upon vital things. Our declaration of war a little over a year ago brought with it the confession that we have been a careless and in many respects an idle people, and that we have in many ways been far behind our enemies in the utilization of the fruits of the earth that lay in our hands.

The educational patriots who sometimes tremble about the future of vocational education need not be concerned any longer. We have learned in recent weeks that a democracy can hope to endure only by proving its superiority to autocracy in the employment of the material as well as the intellectual forces of the world. We need trained minds, we need intellectual leaders, and we need trained human units. We need millions of educated hands, and there can be no educated hand without a trained mind.

I do not mean that the schools of the future should rear mere automatons, but I do mean that it is the business of the schools to realize that every human being has a place in the general economy of things, and that it is the business of the school best to fit the individual to find and fill his place. I know that this is a platitude. I hope that the day is soon to come when it shall become a *practice* instead of a *platitude*. It is a platitude that must be repeated until it becomes a practice. Educational diagnosis and therapeutics have been much talkt of and little practist in this country. We must educate hands to do all the things that have ever been done anywhere in the world, and better than they have ever been done before, and, more than that, we must saturate minds with ideas which will lead hands to do new things for the betterment of mankind.

The democracy that is to endure will not only train the minds and the hands of its future citizens but will look to the condition of their bodies. It is as vitally important to teach boys and girls the proper care of their bodies, the essentials of a well-regulated diet, the value of recreation and play, of sunshine and pure air, of rest and sleep, and the relation of these things to the training of the mind and the hand, to the development of character, and to the preservation of life itself, as it is to teach them to read and write. The health of a nation, we have lately discovered, is of vital concern in its striking power. It is the duty and obligation of the leaders of public education in this country to predicate the health work of the schools upon standards which will develop men and women who are as fit for service in times of peace as the government demands its men shall be in times of war.

You will observe that I have been forst to deal in general terms with the topic assigned to me. The best training for national service, in my judgment, lies in the best training of the individual human unit. It is the business of the school to begin with the individual. I have no pet theory to present, no crystallized program to outline, but I apprehend that the schools of the future, as their contribution to the continued safety of democracy and to an enduring peace upon the earth, will be guided by these fundamental principles:

1. They will have reverence for the past and will seek in all possible ways to study and to interpret the record of mankind as a guide to living men.

2. They will leave no field of successful human endeavor out of their program and will study what the hands of men have done and what they may do to preserve the liberties and the civilization which we enjoy.

3. They will consider the health and physical well-being of every school child and will nourish human life as the most priceless thing next to human liberty.

4. They will employ all agencies for human betterment and for national safety and will lay the foundation for a national system of disciplinary and military training for all able-bodied men of proper age, so that every American citizen may effectively meet his responsibilities to the nation.

5. Finally, they will train the future generation of citizens to believe, no matter what the immediate issue of the present conflict, that there can never be compromise or harmony between our way of life and that of the enemies of civilization whom we now oppose. However long the road, the journey must bring us to a clear realization of this fact: democracy, with all that it means, must be supreme upon the earth if the future happiness and well-being of mankind is to be assured.

COMPETENT TEACHERS FOR AMERICAN CHILDREN

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The American people have made a new resolve: it is that hereafter their children shall be taught only by loyal, patriotic supporters of the American government. The importance of such a resolve can scarcely be overestimated. It means that education is recognized by the nation as the bulwark of American liberty and the source of strength and safety of American institutions. It means that hereafter our faith will not consist in blind trusting that things will come out right, but that planning will take the place of drifting, and purpose the place of chance.

Not until recently were we aware that there are many un-American schools and many un-American teachers. Our ignorance of the situation was appalling and our stupidity colossal. Not until we entered the world-conflict did we pause, take stock, and discover the sinister influence of German *Kultur* in the schools of the country. Now we find that there has been an organized program for the Germanizing of America. The president of the German-American Alliance, Mr. Charles J. Hexamer, said in 1911,[1] "What the root is to the tree, that the German language is to Germany. We hope to introduce the teaching of German in all elementary schools. The more the teaching of German increases, the greater will be the number of boys and girls who will be brought to us and who will receive the keys to the treasure houses of our *Kultur*."

[1] The quotations in this paper were taken from an article on "Americans for America," by Mr. David Lawrence, in the *Saturday Evening Post*, June 15, 1918.

This man, a native-born American, and the organization he represented were largely responsible for the existence of 491 evangelical schools in this country, some of which were supported by state funds, in which German is the only language taught.

It was the avowed and undisguised purpose of the Germans to make the schools and education their chief instrumentalities of action. The official quarterly of the League for Germanism in Foreign Lands (September, 1909) contains the following statement: "Work done in the interests of the German school abroad is a noble service rendered to the German nation; for the most effective means of perpetuating Germanism in foreign countries is the school."

Unmistakable evidence is available to show that German protagonists sought to influence and mold courses of study and to provide for the publication of textbooks glorifying Prussianism and German autocracy and minimizing English influence and American traditions. The ultimate end of all this planning is revealed in a statement in the *Pan-American Gazette:* "The Germanization of America has gone ahead too far to be interrupted. Whoever talks of the danger of Americanization of the Germans now here [in America] is not well informed or cherishes a false conception of our relations. In a hundred years the American people will be conquered by the victorious German spirit, so that it will present an enormous German Empire."

This end was to be attained thru the schools by having German teachers teach German ideals thru the German language. These teachers did their work well and, utilizing every opportunity, developt an affection for Germany which the war, in many instances, has been unable to disturb.

What these teachers did and were doing for Germany all teachers in the future must do for America. Their patriotism must be of the simon-pure quality. They must be familiar with and teach the facts about foreign lands, but the ideals they seek to implant must be American ideals, and the language of the graded schools in which these ideals are imparted must be the English language.

The national emergency in education not only demands that teachers be enthusiastic and loyal supporters of the institutions that protect them, and of the ideals that dominate them, but also demands that they be better qualified both academically and professionally than teachers in the past have been. The United States has had almost no national teacher-training plan or system of education at all. In this respect she has been a drifter among the nations of the world. At any rate the inequities in her schools constitute their most striking characteristic. And there are no inequities more pronounst than those relating to the training of teachers.

These irregularities, inequalities, and inequities must be ironed out and the general scholastic level of teachers raised. There are approximately 300,000 teachers in this country who have had no education beyond the

high school, and between 50,000 and 100,000 who have had no schooling beyond the eighth grade.

Cities suffer less from these untrained, uneducated, immature, raw recruits than the villages and country districts. Is not one of the fundamental tenets of democracy equality of educational opportunity? And is not the intelligence of the rural folk of this country as essential to the upbuilding, to the efficiency, and to the safety of democracy as the intelligence of city folk? If true democracy is to exist, then there must be as competent and well-trained teachers in the country as in the cities.

The teachers of tomorrow must know more than the teachers of the past. Patriotic ideals will not always have emotional crises to arouse them and tragic events about which to cluster. The day will come when they must be inculcated in the quiet recesses of the schoolroom. The brains of all the people must be mobilized to meet our common obligations, to provide mutual understanding and intercourse, and to solve our common problems.

These statements are based on the assumption that we must have a national policy in education and that the schools will reflect the principles, ideals, and ambitions of the nation. Nearly half of the present teaching force of this country is too poorly trained, or too young, or remains in teaching too short a time to be of great service in achieving such important results. The average American teacher gets her initial experience at eighteen or nineteen years of age and remains in teaching four years. This means that she leaves at the age of twenty-four. About the time a young doctor is entering upon his interneship, where he is expected to spend from one to two years acquiring experience before he is allowed to practice medicine, the typical American school teacher is finishing her professional career. Dentistry, law, engineering, nursing, journalism, every profession that is a profession requires many more years of training than are required for teaching.

How and where is this training to be secured? The answer is, in the teacher-training institutions of this country. The welfare and the safety of the country demand federal recognition of teacher training. We have been provincial in that we have regarded education largely as a local matter. It has now become a national obligation. The Commission on National Emergency proposes to ask Congress for an appropriation to be distributed to the states under appropriate conditions and to be matcht by them for the training of teachers. We have long been committed to the policy of providing federal support for the education of soldiers and sailors to promote the arts of war and to protect us in time of war; now it seems that the nation must and ought to commit itself to the policy of providing federal support for the education of all its children to promote the arts of peace. One is as important as the other.

The lack of well-trained teachers has become worse since the beginning of the war. Thousands of men teachers have enlisted or have been drafted,

and tens of thousands of women teachers have offered their services for relief or social work. Competent teachers are not available to take their places. The Commissioner of Education fears a shortage of 100,000 teachers this next year. This is a national calamity. England made the same tragic mistake when she entered the war. Many of her schools were closed and hundreds of thousands of children were put to work in the shops, factories, mills, and mines, or left free to roam the streets. As a result juvenile crime increast 34 per cent during the first year of the war. France faced a similar situation. Now both these nations are attempting, thru increast appropriations and by the stimulation of public sentiment, to rehabilitate their schools.

It may be urged that the schools should be closed to save coal. If it is necessary to close the schools to win the war, then the schools should be closed; but before we close the schools we should close the saloons, the pool halls, the billiard rooms, every place of questionable character, and every unnecessary industry. The schools must be kept open if possible. But, it may be askt, where are we to find the teachers? There must be several hundred thousand well-educated married women who have had successful experience as teachers. In the present emergency these women should volunteer their services as teachers, or the government should conscript them. The nation must understand that teaching is a form of high patriotic service, and that the education of the masses is as necessary for social solidarity and security as for social progress.

Such a remedy as I have proposed would be temporary, of course. Teaching will continue to be a way station on the road to professional careers for many, until it affords better rewards and worthier sanctions. Salaries are hopelessly inadequate. Half the teachers of this country get five hundred dollars a year. About 47 per cent get eight dollars a week or less, when distributing their salaries over fifty-two weeks to the year. And the situation has not improved with the war. In fact, it has grown steadily worse. The cost of living has increast 30 or 40 per cent and is still rising, but the salaries of teachers as a class remain practically unchanged. Small wonder that many, from economic necessity alone, have dropt out of teaching to enter other lines of work. The government has been offering salaries for clerical and stenographic work that are two and three times larger than the salary of the average teacher. I have found dozens of high-school graduates in Minnesota accepting employment this spring at salaries ranging from sixty-five to ninety-five dollars a month for twelve months. Plumbers, carpenters, cement workers, basket workers, the makers of soap and paste, and the iceman are better paid than teachers. Even house servants are better paid than teachers.

All this means that less and less competent persons will be attracted to teaching, unless unusual remedies are available. The first and simplest of these is that teachers be better paid. If we are to retain our present

standards, salaries must be increast nearly 50 per cent at once; and if we are to improve the quality of the teaching staff, salaries must be advanst 100 per cent in the near future. In the midst of war can this nation be made to see and to appreciate the importance of this? This problem is not local; it is national. Teachers do not belong to any state; they belong to the United States.

It is evident to every thinking person that this movement for nation-wide standards for teachers is but a part of the general movement to secure national recognition for all those agencies that affect the welfare, health, and education of all the people. Gradually but certainly the isolation between communities is breaking down, the boundaries of community life are being extended. The measure of a citizen today is the size of the unit in which he thinks.

The National Education Emergency Commission is trying to put the emphasis where it belongs. It believes that this Association should call the attention of the nation to the present emergency in education and that it should take the lead in demanding competent teachers for American children. It feels that it would be a travesty to win a glorious victory on the battlefields of France and to let the schools of the country diminish in importance and decrease in efficiency. It feels that the secondary line of defense, the line that holds the reserves, the line that is to weld the fruits of this victory into stable government, is the teachers of America and the children they are educating. It believes that while civilization hangs in the balance in Europe, steps must be taken at home at once to make it safe for the future. The commission insists that this is the most strategic moment in the history of public education in this country. It is a moment when a nation may transcend its provincialism and lay the foundation for future stability and future greatness by providing a teaching staff and an educational system commensurate with its dignity and its idealistic future.

THE ENLISTMENT OF THE PROFESSION

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Educational unpreparedness must not follow military unpreparedness. We organized rapidly to fight the enemy abroad. We must organize as rapidly to meet the needs of education, which stabilizes government and gives force and point to our arms. When the United States was engulft in the German War, the nation was not ready. We had no army, no equipment for an army, no adequate transportation by land or sea. The little war machinery we had was at once put into action; volunteers were called, as the first stop-gap; and then the draft—every man within the age limits set wrote down his name, to go with a gun on his shoulder when summoned.

But the draft did not stop there; soldiers were not all the need. Advisers there must be—wise men, with wide vision and practical sense, to say what must be done. Captains of industry, masters of transportation, princes of finance, wizards of science—all were prest into service and put to work to win the war. Then the nation's resources of manufactured articles and raw materials, of artisan skill and of money, were swept into the ranks to do their part. One of the most splendid spectacles of our generation has been the quick, hearty response of the leaders of affairs—of finance and industry—and the owners and managers of the nation's resources to the rallying call for service in the nation's emergency.

The war brought the teaching profession face to face with an emergency in the field of education almost equally startling. As by a lightning flash the war revealed certain respects in which our educational plans and practices had failed to prepare for the demands of this hour; and in this same white light, looking toward the future—those days that shall come after the war—we have seen that we are not now fitting American young people to meet the demands that those days will make.

Both counsel and action by school people were needed, and needed promptly. The new Army is built on the plans of trained soldiers; our Navy grows on the plans of trained naval officers; financiers make the plans to finance the war. School people must be lookt to for plans to meet the emergency in education, both now and for the years after the war.

Only one organization, the National Education Association, enlists the service of, and speaks for, the entire teaching profession; kindergarten, elementary school, high school, college, university, professional and technical school, state and municipal school systems, private and endowed schools, all have a part in its membership and its councils, and all find here the forum for the discussion of their problems. The National Education Association also considers the public's interest as well as the interest of its members. It was therefore for the National Education Association to consider at once the emergency that had sprung upon the nation, to begin the statement of the present problem, and to move for its solution.

The president of the Association appointed a commission, the members of which have been and are still at work on the situation. But the task which confronts the Association and the country cannot be accomplisht by a few. The counsel, the interest, and the support of the entire teaching profession are required, for two reasons: First, their financial support is needed. The necessity for consultation, for the collection of information and opinion, and for editing, publication, and distribution has tremendously increast. The Association has some income from investments, but the sum is wholly inadequate for these new demands. It has no other resource but the fees from memberships. Secondly, the cooperation of the entire profession in every branch is necessary if the service which both the country and the members of the profession need is to be rendered. The

teachers of every rank and department must become familiar with the situation as it is ascertained; they must understand the plans proposed and the importance of them; they must be the interpreters and advocates of these plans to the general public, which is not directly connected with, and has not been informed about, school work, but is interested, vitally interested, in the results to be obtained and will be prepared to cooperate fully and cheerfully if it is informed and interested by the teachers.

There are 750,000 teachers in America. In the past, only about 1 per cent of the entire number of teachers have been regular, permanent members of the Association. France, with one-third the population of the United States, enrols more than 100,000 teachers in her national association. To be equally professional, the National Education Association must have 300,000 members.

The Association calls for the enlistment of all teachers in its ranks. The mark has been set at 50,000 by July, 1918; the 100,000 mark should be reacht by January, 1919. If the teachers rally in this as they have in various other "drives" in which they have helpt to promote activities important as war emergencies, they will go "over the top" in this movement, which has to do with their own professional honor and service and which will be taken as a measure of their professional spirit and devotion.

THE RECONSTRUCTION OF THE RACE

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I come before you as an alienist. I am grateful to your distinguisht body for an opportunity to present some views on education from that standpoint. Pathology has after all taught us the most we know about the normal in biology. We learned physiology from our studies of function perverted by disease. We learned about the normal brain thru investigation of diseased brains. The admired Montessori method of teaching normal children had its origin in the methods of Itard and Seguin in teaching idiots.

So now in a world half mad, with all sorts of disorders in the body politic, perhaps an alienist may help, be it never so little, in some new adjustment toward the normal.

We have been suddenly awakened by the war from our complacent slumber. Pain, suffering, danger, stirring elements in the psychological mechanism, rouse alarm, quicken alertness, light up all the old memories and powers of defense.

The horror and surprise of a nation of madmen broken loose upon the world has brought a sudden consciousness among the peoples. We are appalled that our selective draft of young men who are to fight our battles in France and Flanders reveals defects in an average of 30 per cent—these

young men who were the school children of yesterday. What was the matter with the schools of yesterday which took them in and returned to us only two-thirds as able-bodied citizens? The answer is found in the schools of today.

Authorities show us that there are *physical defects* in 75 per cent of the 20,000,000 school children of today, most of them preventable and remediable, heart and lung diseases, disorders of hearing and vision, malnutrition, diseased adenoids and tonsils, flatfoot, weak spines, imperfect teeth—and among them 1 per cent of mental defect. The children in country schools are worse off than those in city schools. We are sending the best we have to foreign battlefields. We are retaining the 30 per cent of imperfect citizens to leaven the race of tomorrow. There is such a thing as the *prepotence of inferiority*. It is often said that we get what we deserve in the way of government, laws, and institutions. Since it is possible in our democracy for a moron to be elected mayor of a city, and an imbecile to be made governor of a vast state, it may easily be imagined how the smaller offices in our legislatures, county boards, and city councils overflow with the inferior and the unfit.

We have spent millions of dollars on swine plague, foot and mouth disease of cattle, pine blister, chestnut blight, gypsy moth, chicken cholera, and we have the annual "pork barrel" of millions upon millions of dollars devoted to all sorts of trivial and foolish exploitations of rural creeks and hamlets, but what have we spent upon our greatest national asset, health of body in our school children? Body is the foundation upon which mental structure must rise. It is of first importance that the physical foundation be made and kept sound and strong. The mental structure is secondary to that. We are spending enormous sums upon the medical care of our insane and other defectives in institutions all over the country, and rightly so, to do what we can to repair our broken adults. This is relief work, but what we spend on preventive measures, on health education, for our growing children is small by comparison.

The children are the state's best property, out-ranking lands, produce, mines, water power, live stock, forests, and railways. Think of the billions of dollars spent upon these secondary interests! Think of the indifference and opposition to the care of children, to two-cent lunches to be paid for by the children themselves, to doing away with child labor in factory and mine, to the smallest health measures demanded for their welfare! It needs indeed an alienist to direct attention to these facts.

Compulsory education we have, compulsory feeding and training of the mind. Compulsory health we must have, compulsory feeding and training of the body.

In the war against ignorance we have conscripted the school children. They are the vast draft army of our second line of defense. But in what sort of cantonments do we house them? What physical drill do we give

them, what medical inspection and care, what sanitation, what remedial steps do we take to restore them quickly to the ranks when they are ill?

But enough of destructive criticism. Let us turn to the idea of a reconstruction of the race. Let us read the old books with new comprehension. It is almost a hundred generations ago that a teacher (Mencius) wrote: "The root of the Empire is in the State. The root of the State is in the family. The root of the family is in the individual. So for the people—encourage them; lead them on; rectify them; straighten them; help them; give them wings!"

We must set a standard. It might be that of Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes, "to begin the education of the child a hundred years before it is born." That can be attained in a few generations. To accomplish it we must coordinate all the organizations now at work for the conservation of our citizenry—the maternity classes, the baby-saving societies, the mothers' committees, the kindergartens, the child-welfare and physical-training bodies, the seaside, the countryside, and sunshine associations, all that have to do with preschool welfare, the public and private schools, the Child Labor Committee, the Mental Hygiene Association, the boards of education, and the boards of health. The presidents of boards of health and boards of education should be *ex officio* members of these coordinated boards. This is a great undertaking, but we can begin by breaking into the curriculum of the public schools and establishing *education* in *health*, especially in food knowledge and food habits as a *vital* and *essential* part of the teaching. From the schools the health instruction will be carried home to the parents and younger children, and soon the whole movement of reconstruction will permeate the state.

The program is a large one and requires:

1. That the *teachers* themselves be given better conditions for their own health and fuller instruction in all that has to do with the laws of health.

2. That every city and country school should be made sanitary and kept so, and the school and its grounds should be as beautiful as possible, not only for the benefit of the teachers and the pupils, but as an example to all other citizens, who are beginning to use the school more and more as a community center.

3. That every child should be regularly weighed, measured, and examined and a health record should be kept, which should accompany him thruout his school life. It should be the duty of the authorities to see that the defects of our young citizens are corrected, and disorders of growth and nutrition remedied. As malnutrition is one of the most serious conditions, a hot luncheon should be made available for every child and every teacher. The health examination should include dental inspection and treatment.

4. That each school should have adequate provision for physical training, gymnasiums, athletic fields, playgrounds, gardens, and shops,

together with especially qualified instructors in physical training and vocational fields.

5. And finally, with the above foundations, that a thoro system of instruction should be given in all matters pertaining to health, with special emphasis upon *health*-problems rather than upon *disease*, in physical and mental habits, in personal hygiene, in public health and sanitation, in methods to avoid communicable diseases, in the responsibilities of parenthood, and in all that relates to nutrition and growth, including foods and food values and food habits.

This is a large program, too large for the inequalities of conscience and consciousness of our multitudinous states. It might be carried out in a few states soon and in others only after generations.

This is a scheme for the reconstruction of the whole people. It is a federal program. It is an emergency program. It should have the immediate attention of our foremost teacher in the presidential chair. We need a Hoover for the children, a children's health administrator.

With all this in view and after months of careful planning the National Child Health Organization has been formed, whose literature is being now distributed to you. Do the first practical thing for a beginning. The teachers can place scales and a measuring rod at once in every school, and with the height and weight and age charts that will be sent you on request you can immediately start the campaign against one of the chief evils, viz., malnutrition. The Child Health Organization has some of the best teachers and educators in the country as members, and counts on its Board the foremost medical specialists on children and public health. Its publications will be supplied on request to all who desire them.

WHY SHOULD THE GOVERNMENT TRAIN FOR FOREIGN SERVICE?

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Our beloved country is now at war. As the inner meaning of this conflict becomes clearer with the passing days, the responsibility of organized education in any program for the successful prosecution of the war becomes more and more apparent. Concurrent with the course of military events, coordinating measures, corrective, regulatory, and prohibitive in turn, are planned by the nation's authorized agents, governmental and otherwise, and are swiftly accepted and executed with the praiseworthy and unstinted cooperation of the people of this nation.

These measures are of two kinds, namely, those that relate directly to winning the war and those that relate directly to reaping the benefits

of victory. Chief among the latter are economic measures and provisions to insure their successful issue. And of primary importance in this catalog is the foreign trade of the nation.

Training for foreign service meant until quite recently only preparation for the diplomatic and consular service. And the training for this specific career varied with, and was determined somewhat by, the political principles and social bases of each government and nation. But that time has past. Overstimulus of production in some quarters of the world and overpopulation in others and the respiritualization of society due to the internationalizing of all national social and religious welfare work, have led to the creation of a new scale of comparative values by the commercial nations of the world. No longer, as in the past, are international friendships to be determined solely by the strength or weakness of diplomatic conferences, conventions, treaties carried on, or drafted thru, the political channels created for that purpose.

Trade laws and political rights of nations are therefore profitable fields of study just now. And these laws and rights are quite closely related, even at times imperceptibly confused. For example, shall one politically friendly nation be allowed practically to create an embargo on one or more of the products of another nation thru a trade convention with a third nation, even tho there may be no real basis for the interpretation of an unfriendly act? Such questions require quite new solutions, and I believe permanent ones, with the enlarging international responsibility that all nations have assumed with their entry into world-commerce, and which responsibility is deepened and sobered by the righteous ideals of this war. The answer to them, as to many similar questions, cannot be given by their Platonic discussion in unrelated college courses on international law or foreign trade. For their solution we need loyal men, trained to an abiding conviction in the permanency of the principles of this government, to that fine degree of spiritual vision characteristic of the international mind, and possessing that body of knowledge and skill which shall be required henceforth in the conduct of all international economic and social relations.

In training for foreign service we must keep constantly in mind the distinctive character of service to be rendered and the consequent difference in the character of training demanded for that service. We have endangered somewhat the success of our venture into foreign fields by the complacent belief of business and government that this training can be acquired in the actual conduct of foreign trade and foreign-relations missions and by the insistence of schools and colleges that general education is the best preparation for the successful pursuit of these careers.

We need, first of all, in every manufacturing city opportunity in the schools for thoro instruction in commercial branches. We need to have free and unrestricted opportunity given to every boy and girl to receive as much skill in the vocational-commercial subjects and as much knowledge

of the technique of distribution as their circumstances permit and the character and the diversity of the manufacturing production of their city warrant. We need to have our schools function more naturally in the industrial and commercial life of the city, affording, without stint or hindrance, ample opportunities for continuation and part-time instruction for those actually engaged in commerce. There must be a larger sympathy between business and the schools and a larger and more intimate understanding of their respective problems. Business men must give their time and money for the support of these schools, for they need, not only a type of teacher that is able to command a higher salary thru his knowledge of business, but the cooperative teaching of these business men themselves.

For the study of commerce, domestic or foreign, we have as yet neither a definite program nor a definite policy. The latter is still quite vague. Even business itself in certain quarters insists upon training for its pursuit in actual employment, an attitude that may be paralleled in the early days of shaping programs of study for law, medicine, engineering, etc. The rapid development of this country may have encouraged preparation outside of the schools, and our marvelous prosperity may have blinded us to the inefficiency of our individual training. Nevertheless there has been much waste of effort and economic loss to the nation.

If now, thru lack of centralizing authority, after the manner of the French and Italian, or thru failure to appreciate the need of our country for an unfailing, favorable trade balance, a definite trade policy, and a definite, nay, uniform, course of training for foreign trade, as Germany has done and Great Britain is now doing, our schools continue to function in response to purely local needs and the delicate machinery of inner relationships that have been built within the school hierarchy by committees on prescribed studies, entrance and graduate requirements, etc., it shall then be our national task to make training for foreign service the nation's business, and ways and means shall be found to perform this educational service, either in federal academies establisht for that purpose, or in subsidized institutions, strategically situated and favorably disposed to train for the nation's need.

Let us see first if we can build for our purpose on our present educational system. Ways and means must be found, however, for the immediate introduction of new subjects and the modification in presentation of those already offered in all cities that possess actual or potential export trade. Direct response must be given by the schools and colleges to the requests of duly accredited federal agencies that may be empowered to advise and direct instruction for foreign service, to distribute federal money appropriated for the support of this instruction, and to render cooperative teaching service at such times and in such schools as the subject may demand and the program of cooperation permit. Only in this manner can our schools and colleges meet the responsibility vested in them as the training factor of the nation; only thus can they be induced to offer and adequately teach at once

and in a satisfactory manner the really large body of essential knowledge; only thus can they train efficiently for local or national commercial needs with adequate vocational guidance; and only thus can they become the nation's nursery where there can be planted the seed of proper understanding of a nation's international obligations, to become, under proper nurture henceforth, the nation's priceless possession and the indispensable and invaluable knowledge of all engaged in the foreign service of this country.

Commerce on the high seas shall again become the heritage of this nation, inalienable thru its situation, its resources, and the mission it should perform by virtue of its political principles and political destiny. Our nation will never become a mere nation of traders. We must and shall prepare ourselves to give to our carriers of commerce, the cooperating diplomats of the future, the inspirational training which, while it affords the skill demanded of every transaction in the practice of trade, teaches respect of man for man, the rights of races, and the territorial integrity of nations.

THE RÔLE OF WOMAN IN THE NEW INTERNATIONALISM

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The training of boys exclusively by men, and of girls by women, is a thing of the past. We all know now that the influences of both parents, and of teachers of both sexes, are needed by every child.

The early association of human beings in towns and little states was more for protective than for cooperative purposes. Then as cooperation gradually developt it appeared under its cruder and harsher forms, dominated by fears and greeds, and so continually defeating its own ends—stepping on its own feet, as it were. These rougher husklike forms of human affiliation made apparently but moderate appeal to women, and their part in public affairs was small.

But law and order prest forward from the little to the great under the divine laws of progression, and cooperation began to mean not only profitable exchange but devoted human service. On a large scale this hardly came consciously into the world before the time just previous to our own. And then all at once our Pallas Athene—wise womanhood—sprang fully panoplied into the arena. Was there human service to be rendered? She must play her part at the voting booths, at the council tables, on school boards, on municipal committees.

Let us make no mistake. The largest factor in the urge of the woman's soul that she take her place in the common life of the municipality, of the state, and of the nation was, not a demand for a right, but an unappeasable hunger for vital human service in the wonderful fields of the new social order opening upon her vision.

Side by side with the articulate expression of that urge, whether as yet granted fulfilment or not, have come into our community life new ideals and new services rendered by men and women together—services which neither men nor women could have initiated or developt alone. You know them—juvenile courts, public playgrounds, improved public sanitation, community forums—a thousand forms of human service.

Before this war of wars tore the world into abysses under our feet, this vitalizing of our municipal life was creating new environment for us and, more important, for our children. With the unbelievable events of 1914 came dizzy indignation and throbs of world-wide compassion on a larger scale than had ever before moved the world. International thinking and feeling began to be a part of daily life even in this somewhat isolated and considerably self-centered Republic.

Then came opportunities for international service, and we sprang forward, not as eagerly perhaps, or as fully, as if we had been better prepared to understand the situation; and not altogether with clean hands, for were not some among us making blood-stained fortunes? But necessarily with this vitalization of internationalism there came in the cooperation of the women. Is it possible to conceive that internationalism will ever cease to be their common business? Is not the whole world now the potential house of their Father?

Among the evidences of this vitalized internationalism now in process of development is the leap from a purely commercial food exchange, hampered by tariffs, to national and international collection and conservation of food on the absolute basis of social utility. Have American women played no part in that international act of conservation? Has not that function lain on their hearts day in and day out for more than a year?

Internationalism in these swift days must be based on our experience of life rather than learned from books. What do you know of community service that is translatable into international terms?

If in the community such services are the mutual product of men and women we must believe that women's intuition and the urge of their hearts will impel them to share in the working out of like international services and in giving them vitality.

We women have workt on these problems in small ways in our own comfortable communities. We are now working side by side with our brethren across the seas over these same problems on a vaster scale than we had ever dreamed of. Who asks whether the work is done by men or by women? It simply has to be done by both, not because there are not enough workers of either sex alone, tho that is also true; but because it is the old human problem of the home.

But while it is not alien to us to consider these human matters on a huge scale while they still relate to individuals, no matter how many, perhaps we do not so readily perceive the need for insight and sympathetic compre-

hension for nations as nations, and for whole peoples, sick, crippled, nerve-shattered; aye, and for nations that are delinquent. But the dreadful need will be there. Patience, understanding, kindness—they will all be needed to the full for the healing of the nations at the time of the coming great reckoning. Above all, the ripest wisdom will be required for rightly handling delinquent nations which have lackt high national standards and denied international obligation.

Many analogues could be adduced between those lesser and those greater services for humanity which can be properly and fully consummated only by the natural and unselfish cooperation of men and women. In playing her part in fulfilling them woman will find her rôle in the new internationalism, a rôle that calls for the study of the histories of peoples, not the histories of kings; that calls for an acquaintance with maps; that calls for inquiry as to where the grain, the wool, the cotton, the iron, and the lumber come from, and why it is so hard for the peoples of some countries to get these things, and so easy for others. It calls also for an understanding of why the great mass of men in civilized countries toil painfully all their days for scant bread, and a few, often with no toil, live in luxury.

These are some of the problems of the new internationalism; and they are upon us, for it is well known that economic as well as national questions are to come up for settlement at the peace table, a knowledge that is disquieting to profiteers of every type in every civilized country. May those who are summoned to that fateful table be democratically representative of the great common life of the world; and to be so representative there ought to be women among them.

But in any case only a few women, as only a few men, will meet at the peace table. Only a comparatively few women can labor directly in international work. Let us not fail to realize, however, that every woman of right feeling who develops the "international mind," no matter how simple the expression she is able to give to it, will be playing a part in the creation of the new world that is to come out of this welter if civilization is not to perish. We women can ponder these things in our hearts. As the lawgiver of old admonisht, we can teach them diligently unto our children; we can speak of them when we sit in the house, and when we walk by the way, and when we lie down, and when we rise up. For what we love we speak of, fitting it with sympathetic adaptation into the life we are living with those about us. And this must happen, this is happening. The only thing that concerns each of us personally is whether she will live her life henceforth as a part of the new time or will go her own lonely way, walking half visible, as a shadow or a ghost from a former world.

And finally, to rise to these high duties and privileges, woman must not only understand many new things and speak to others of them, but she must see the world whole, as if it were a man—as if it were a child. She must feel out for it with a vast motherhood, sick, but not to death, to which

she is to bring comfort and peace, and at the last a new and abounding joy. She will carry on her banners the word of that great teacher who came to us from across the sea, Goldwin Smith: "Above all nations is humanity."

PRACTICAL EDUCATION UNDER FEDERAL GUIDANCE

ERNEST A. SMITH, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH

A progressive publicist in education said happily a few years ago, "The facts of life and their good friend, common sense, have been demanding a school for the plain, practical man." What are the facts? It is commonly admitted that the American type of education has not been suited to the youth of the land and to the needs of the nation. Children have not been gript by the prevalent courses of study. Training by apprenticeship has largely past away. The conditions of the past prosperity of the United States no longer exist. The world of today steadily grows smaller and kindred interests are widely recognized. America has forst upon it new standards of comparison. As a democracy its time of accounting is at hand. Since education is the cornerstone of our democracy, the query is pertinent, Have the schools developt the young life intrusted to them to the largest profit of society, of the nation, and of the collective individuals? The monetary value of the youth of the nation has been estimated to be three hundred billions. Of those who complete an elementary education 94 per cent enter manual occupations. The verdict of the federal expert is that scarcely one in one hundred is trained for the work he is doing.

Common sense, that faithful friend of the facts of life, may well inquire, Why not give the young people a partial preparation at least for what is to occupy them in real life? Can there not be a share of practical education along with the cultural? We have all askt the same question. As educators we have theorized about it for a generation. Meanwhile the industrial world has expanded by leaps and bounds. Industry does not argue or sleep; it works ceaselessly. There seems a reluctance on the part of school men to come to grips with the big economic problems. Labor unions and manufacturers have not been equal to the gigantic task of training the workers of America.

Away back in the midst of the Civil War the federal government began the policy of encouraging agricultural and trade education thru land grants to colleges. Now in the midst of this world-war Congress has summoned the common schools of the nation to shoulder the responsibility of practical education. The federal stimulus from the national treasury is not a new policy. The $600,000,000 given in aid of education prior to 1917 is but an earnest of the larger gifts to come, and no one can predict the extent of the appropriations for future world-competitive needs. But the thoroness and

the whole-heartedness of the response of the commonwealths of the land to this federal challenge are now of paramount concern to the cause of practical education.

There are those who believe that such training should be entirely in charge of the states. The record of a few commonwealths in this field is well known. But as is universally true under our form of government in all matters of social welfare, there has emerged no uniformity of policy in vocational education. With only nine states up to 1916 having adopted any favorable legislation, the prospects of a speedy nation-wide program were decidedly vague. However, new occasions teach new duties. Public, social, and economic life are as signally transformed in America as in Europe. The national consciousness has outstript all bounds. The present federal activity can scarcely stop with war measures. If the government now sends eighty thousand of its drafted men to school for a few weeks to attain elementary skill for army needs, will it not provide that millions of youths receive adequate preparation for the vast industrial duties of peace?

Federal guidance will benefit all the states. There are at present grave inequalities of educational opportunity between state and state, between section and section. There has not been the same initiative, nor the same ability to afford the sort of education that will serve the general welfare and the national interest. Federal aid has placed the importance of vocational education squarely before the country at large. Our resources are vastly better utilized. Federal taxation has been permanently enlarged, and the means will be available to encourage practical training for all the people of all sections under our flag.

Under federal guidance it is possible to create standards of efficiency in vocational education. The cooperation of the state boards allows full recognition and provision for the distinctive industries of each area. Maximum economic fitness is of nation-wide concern and not merely a sectional issue. Cooperation and regulation are the new watchwords of American production. The Morrell Act did not realize the results expected in practical education. Under the stimulus of new conditions with capable federal leadership the day of larger educational achievement is at hand.

The vocational education promoted by the Smith-Hughes Bill is not a hard-and-fast system. It cannot be completed over night and put into operation. Adequate equipment and competent teachers require time. No feature of the plan is so important as the continuation or part-time school. It may well at an early date be charged to compulsory instruction. Certainly in no locality should the practical training of youth be begun before a sufficiently thoro survey has been made of the industrial needs and opportunities of the region. The operation of the recent vocational law in the state of New York is ideal in its provision of complete data for an educational program. Already in many states this year the interest of high-school pupils in vocational courses of study has risen to a high pitch. The federal support stamps the practical training as most worth while. Prevocational

work in the junior high and intermediate schools should prove a stimulating factor to large vocational enrolment.

A new industrial world has come to pass. No longer will capital hold absolute sway. The long-delayed recognition of the place of labor is being made. The day of the trained, educated workman has dawned. The necessity of his practical training for national tasks in industry has deepest social significance. It is the surest guaranty against class cleavage and public unrest. Samuel Gompers, captain of the hosts of industry, has voist the sentiment that the "American workman will insist that the public schools shall generally furnish education for efficient, intelligent, skilled labor, and that the instruction shall be made democratic."

EDUCATION TOWARD THE FORMATION OF MORAL CHARACTER

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Society, as it becomes more complex and develops higher standards of individual and social well-being, is always requiring more of its schools, those specialized educational agencies to which are progressively transferred functions of training and instruction heretofore performed incidentally or informally thru life itself, apart from the school. During the last ten years all progressive educators have been industriously studying and planning the development of vocational schools to supplement, in response to the insistently voist demands of many social agencies, the historic forms of general or liberal education which had already been freely developt in public schools. Now that we have achieved substantial results in laying the foundations of public vocational schools, I predict that the next great question which will, for many years, engage the efforts of the public and of educators who can think and plan will be that of the moral education which can produce in individuals the moral character required to meet the needs of a highly developt democracy in the twentieth century.

In facing the problems of what will in this paper, for the sake of brevity, be called "character education," it is of the utmost importance that the National Education Association, thru its members or thru select committees, give especial attention to the following questions: (*a*) What are the present and future urgent needs for better character education than we now get thru the home, the church, and other social agencies than the schools? (*b*) What do our public schools now accomplish toward character education? (*c*) What are some of the possibilities of improved character education in the schools in the near future? (*d*) What are the needs of further investigation and research?

a) The acute problems of character education for our age and conditions begin when the youth, at ten or twelve years of age, begins to share actively in social life outside the home. Here he finds himself in the

atmosphere of independence and free judgment produced by democracy and the scientific spirit of our time. It helps us not at all to say that he is not ready for this new freedom. The simple social fact is that such freedom exists in the social surroundings of at least 95 per cent of the young people of America today. At ten or twelve years of age the girl almost always, and the boy often, are still plastic and responsive to the controls of the only social pressures that greatly affect them—the home, the school, and sometimes the church. Within six or eight years at most a majority of the girls and almost all the boys have, during their active waking hours, come to live in a social environment which is little influenst by standards of home, church, or even school in the narrower academic sense. In this environment, in curiously mixt ways, independence of judgment, disregard of authority as such, and liberty of action prevail and are even cherisht, except within and with reference to the limited social groups which, under the influence of instinct and custom and sometimes strong leadership, constitute the central facts of social life for most young persons. For them these six or eight years usually constitute their period of initiation into self-supporting employment, power to live almost completely away from the home, readiness to take part in political movements, and the beginnings of courtship acquaintance with the opposite sex. Here lie the most acute needs and the most pressing problems of character education.

b) But let us not make the mistake of undervaluing or misinterpreting the present accomplishments of the schools in character education. In a very real sense our existing schools do the work now expressly committed to them fairly well as respects both character education and other forms of education. Upon the American high school, as an educational agency, for example, there are laid, by controlling authorities, just two types of work and responsibility: first, to teach, in accordance with well-understood standards, certain subjects giving knowledge and skill, such as algebra, history, chemistry, typewriting, English language, civil government, and the like; and secondly, while doing this, to insure, by means of the personalities and examples of teachers, machinery of discipline, and some influence exerted on those voluntary activities of the pupils which intimately affect their school life and work, that the school as a little social world shall itself be orderly, harmonious, cooperative, refined, elevating, and withal democratic. Do we explicitly ask the school to do any more than this?

Is it not a fact that in view of the demands thus explicitly made and the means provided the American high school is doing these tasks fairly well?

Let the American teachers as well as the American people take no small credit to themselves for the relative excellence of the social life of our schools. Year by year the public demands that our teachers shall be yet more inspiring in their personality, clean in their morals, refined in their manner, democratic in their attitude. The old school vices—bullying, obscenity, destructive mischief, lying, cheating, brutality of teachers, servility of pupils—have been waning for many years. The typical primary

school today is one to which children go enthusiastically and unafraid, and from which they come uncowed, unbrutalized, unroughened. The typical school of the upper grades carries a sad load in its enforst attendance of unadjusted pupils, its unvitalized curriculum, and its unspecialized teaching force; nevertheless, even here, the machinery of control and the personalities of teachers maintain a little society orderly enough for the work that can be done. The typical high school is of course attended only by the select of the community; nevertheless we can well wonder at the orderly and attractive social spirit which prevails.

c) Our schools then, we may say, are now reasonably effective agencies of character formation so far as that character is essential to the social requirements of the school group life itself. But is this any adequate guaranty that the men and women finally produced will be properly socialized for the larger responsibilities of life? It certainly is not. Sometimes the virtues produced in the social environment of the school carry over into later life and sometimes they do not.

Superficially considered, at least, we should expect the standards of dress and personal tidiness required in high school to carry over into later life, because these are standards largely developt during adolescence in all cases. Habitual forms of behavior establisht between boys and girls during the high-school period will probably continue operative, for the same reasons, at least as between social equals, for many years. On the other hand, it may well be doubted whether the standards of "fair play" maintained on the playground can be expected to carry over into adult business and politics where conditions and incitements are necessarily so different. We expect that the boy who has displayed industriousness and initiative in the high school will continue to display these qualities in adult life; but the opposite expectation, that the boy lacking in application and industry in school will not improve or change when he comes under the social pressure of working for rewards that he greatly desires, is so often negatived by experience that we can as yet draw no reliable conclusions.

The possibilities of improving the character education of the schools are therefore of two kinds: we may in specific respects improve upon the procedures already reasonably good, by which we now make the school an effective little social community toward the service of its own ends; and we can seek to discover ways and means whereby we can use the school life of the pupil to produce the qualities now most required in adult social life and which existing agencies fail adequately to produce.

We are continually at work, of course, on the improvement of school society. We are increasing the rewards of public-school teaching and therefore the attractiveness of the profession (if the courtesy-title can yet be allowed) to persons, especially unmarried women, of fine personality and good character. Public demand is steadily enforcing higher standards of social order in the schools. Experiments in establishing some form of self-government for school or classroom, in providing more abundant outlets

for surplus physical energy in play and sports, in surrounding school life with the social sedatives of recreational reading and play, in providing thru the practical arts studies for the orderly expression of workmanship instincts, in forming parents into conferences whereby home and school control can be made mutually to reinforce each other—all these, and scores of other old processes being improved or new ones being introduced represent, in their composite form, movements of much magnitude looking to the conscious, progressive evolution of the school.

What can the public school do, in any of its grades or types, as conscious character education toward the requirements of the adult society which as yet lie far ahead? For the purposes of a character education that shall function specifically in good adult citizenship our more promising opportunities are in schools dealing with youth from twelve years of age upward. Here some promising developments have already been begun. Within moderate limits we believe now that, given a mastery of means and methods yet to be workt out, we can enable the youth to obtain some intellectual apprehension of the structure and functions of the community social life in which, a few years hence, he must play his part. By means of social-science studies yet to be developt and probably by studies of history pedagogically organized in ways as yet only beginning to be understood we can give the prospective citizen really vital *appreciations* of the complexity of the social machinery of which he is a part, and of the importance of his playing a worthy rôle therein. In this transitional adolescent age we realize more perhaps than did our forebears the importance of those ideals which, deeply felt and concretely perceived, have the effect often of becoming the incitements of definite and persisting motives. We do not yet know how to produce these ideals as a steady crop; but having in mind the tremendous influence of rare personalities, of certain types of vital literature and other art, and of new social groupings like the Boy Scouts and boys' clubs, we are slowly developing the conviction that there are yet to be discovered pedagogic ways and means whereby, over long eras and on a large scale, we can realize the valuable results for which we are now indebted to volunteer and, almost of necessity, more or less sporadic effort.

From many sources we educators are slowly building up a body of convictions, resolves, and partial insights which will yet serve as the fertile soil out of which workable and effective programs shall spring. We are beginning to see our present high-school curricula in their true light—as withered and almost unserviceable survivals of ancient practices and mistaken conceptions of educational means. We have ceast to have faith in the traditional organization of our schools for children from twelve to fourteen years of age; and as we proceed to put into effect reorganizations already planned here, we shall undoubtedly open the way for the beginnings of some really vital character education toward the ends of adult life. A thousand signs in the field of adolescent education point the way to new

analyses of educational goals, to new developments of means and methods, and to new achievements of results on a plane much higher than that on which we have heretofore workt.

d) Progress in education in the past has come as the result of a slow trial-and-error process, varied occasionally by the minor revolutions wrought by the dynamic powers of some creative thinker or exceptionally forceful executive. Of progress due to scientific inquiry, carefully planned experimentation, or the execution of deliberately matured programs, education has almost none to show as yet. Nevertheless every forward-looking educator eagerly anticipates the day when educational aims and processes can be systematically improved and advanst by methods that can properly be called scientific. We are at present hardly within sight, in any concrete and comprehensive sense, of such a vision, but we have come to the stage of promising beginnings. Where some of the adjuncts of education are concerned—lighting and ventilation of classrooms, cost accounting, etc.—recent developments have been in a measure along scientific lines. The effectiveness of different methods of training or instruction in the more formal of primary-school studies, as well as objectives in at least two, spelling and arithmetic, has recently been subjected to tests conceived in a scientific spirit and so executed as to give large promise of valuable results in practice in the near future. Contemporary efforts to supplement existing public schools of general education by others designed to offer to the rank and file of workers certain specific forms of vocational education have been made at least partially effective by inquiries of a reasonably scientific character.

Toward furthering the extensions and readjustments of education for the formation of moral character, as discust in this paper, are there practicable, scientific inquiries, well-sustained experiments, systematic applications on a generous scale to objectives and methods of already demonstrated worth? Must the further development of programs in this field wait the outcome of endless exchanges of half-metaphysical dialectics, and the blind fumblings of innovators driven by force of external conditions or lured by a faint inner light? Surely in these days when social consciousness in individuals, and even in many groups, is so wide-awake we can hope for something better. The National Education Association has not ignored its responsibilities and its opportunities in this field heretofore; but assuredly its duty is as yet far from being done.

Under the auspices of the National Education Association, as well as of other educational organizations, can be formed committees created especially for the discovery, analysis, and documentary statement of the specific problems of character education which lie ahead of us.

The members of all teachers' organizations can do much to cooperate, by moral encouragement and by discriminating study of findings, with the endowed and other voluntary agencies now working on the problem involved. In time, if not now, certain of the results of the work of these

organizations will have reacht the point where their definite application in school programs will be safe and desirable.

From time to time, owing to the generosity of some philanthropist or enterprise of an administrator, experimental work on a large scale will be possible. Educators appreciative of scientific method can encourage such experimentation and quietly urge that it be planned and conducted in accordance with scientific method. They can give such experiments time to produce some definite results instead of indulging sometimes in hasty criticism and rejection and sometimes in equally hasty adulation and acceptance.

NEW WORLD-STANDARDS OF EDUCATIONAL EFFICIENCY

MARTIN G. BRUMBAUGH, GOVERNOR OF PENNSYLVANIA, HARRISBURG, PA.

We meet at a time when all the world is atremble with the tread of marching men. The times are out of joint. We meet on the anniversary of the natal day of democracy. This Commonwealth gave birth to that principle of government for which our nation and our Allies now contend in the most cruel and most stupendous struggle of the ages. We shall win because we are right. God never wars on the side of wrong. We shall come from this baptism of blood revivified and regnant race, leading the world in all that makes for righteousness, decency, and justice. While we devote our resources to the winning of the war, it is wise to think upon our opportunities and obligations when this fateful fight will be over and won.

War is always and everywhere an agency of destruction. The school is always and everywhere an agency of construction. The one tears down, the other builds up. The one weakens, the other strengthens. The one is inimical, the other propitious, to the welfare of mankind. The one is a crime against society, the other is a benediction to society.

We here represent this beneficent agency, the school, to which in one form or another we must turn now for the rehabilitation of a broken and crippled civilization. In the soil of sorrow and blood the teacher must plant and propagate the seeds of the life, individual and national, that is to be. Whatever is visioned as the good in civilization must now be carved into reality in the lives of our people by the school-teacher. To him in the fateful days to follow is committed the holy task of making men and nations what under God they must be if they are to endure.

There was a day, not long agone, when the teacher did not enjoy the complete sympathy and support of our people. The evidences of this are not far to seek. With inadequate equipment, limited periods of time for instruction, unsanitary buildings, and wholly underpaid teachers, the school was tolerated rather than welcomed. The war has changed this entire situation. When, in order to make good soldiers of our polyglot population, it became necessary to establish in camp and cantonment

schools to educate soldiers, when literacy was actually accepted as a requisite for all our men in arms, and when it was found that in training camps instituted to equip men for commissions the college men as a class easily led all the rest, it became manifest in a new and a very real way that the strength of this Republic lies in the right education of our citizenry, and from national authorities arose the cry, "Keep the schools open and maintained at a high standard of efficiency." The teacher has at last risen in public thought to the plane of professional service and will hereafter be the most potent factor in shaping the destiny of the Republic when this cruel war is over.

We recognize in America two types of schools: those that are supported wholly by direct tax upon our people, and those that are supported wholly or in part by private philanthropy. The former are the public schools and the latter the private schools. The former are for the most part elementary and secondary schools. The latter are for the most part higher institutions of learning. The public schools train primarily for competition, the higher schools for cooperation. The public schools avowedly are agencies to conserve the Republic by fitting each citizen to use the tools of democracy —reading, writing, and reckoning. These practical and essential subjects of the curriculum we shall always cherish, and we shall, if wise, demand that they be taught and learned in the English language and in no other. No one can be a completely equipt citizen of this Republic who does not use fluently the English language. We assuredly do not need, nor should we allow, instruction in the German language.

The higher schools, supported to train men and women in the cooperative acts that advance civilization, owe a debt also to the nation and to the whole world, the obligation of giving to all the benefits of the study, the research, and the investigation of the specialist. This is the Republic's service to the world of thought. We dare not bottle up the free air or hoard up the sun, since "truth to us and to others is equal and one."

The indictment against German university training lies almost wholly in the fact that the truth was not made free, that higher learning was prostituted. Its world-service was kept for the German state and by it used, not to help, but to harm, the world. The end of learning is not to serve in any selfish way any person or government, but to glorify God and to enjoy him forever. Truth is larger than governments, and scholarship must know no limits in service.

From these premises I deduce standards of service which the school must observe in the future:

1. The school must be not only passively but aggressively moral. Its moral disciplines must have the full sanction of religion. No other sanction will make moral training effective. We want men and nations that will regard a compact or agreement or treaty as a sacred thing, to be kept inviolate, and not a scrap of paper to be tost aside when selfishness and greed possess a people or a government. There can be no code of morals for an

individual that is not equally binding upon nations. The school is the supremely important agency to set these standards in the souls of the people.

2. The school must widen its sphere of service. Plato was right in asserting that education is as much the concern of adult life as of childhood. We sell citizenship in this Republic at a ridiculously low price. We welcome immigrants and give them home and haven. But we should insist that every immigrant must within five years either master the English language or leave the country. We should also rigorously enforce everywhere, by compulsion, the education of all native-born people. We shall be wise if we at once establish and enforce attendance in continuation schools, which must have more intimate articulation with industry. What right has anyone to obtain work in America if he love her not enough to master her language?

3. In addition to a training of a liberal sort, it is manifest now that each citizen should master a defined trade. He may never resort to it for a livelihood, but he is the better citizen for this special training. This is true of women as well as of men. Moreover the day may come (I hope it may not) when the nation will need artisans far in excess of the demands of industry. It has a perfect right to have in reserve and on call when needed a vast army of skilled workers who can on occasion turn to the serious and vital task of serving in a practical way the nation's needs. It is manifest that there must be more secure tenure and more adequate compensation all thru our school system if the teacher is to meet the newer expectations and needs of the nation.

4. We have had enforst upon us, to our shame, the fact that we are wasteful and an extravagant people. We are exhorted now to save in food, in money, in all the essentials of life. We can save vastly more than we now do. The school can teach thrift and train our people to save.

5. The school must set a new ideal of national loyalty. Something like the heroic quality of national fealty that led men, hungry and cold and naked, to endure at Valley Forge must reanimate our people today. We must love the nation more than we love our own comfort. We must serve the nation more willingly than we ask her to serve us. We must be taught to serve her and not be served by her, if we are to be worthy of the holy privileges of membership in this great, glorious government. The national will is nearer to us now than ever before. Let us teach our people gladly to support it.

6. We have had a Prussianized American cult in our higher institutions of learning. It must be banisht forever. It is not suited to the soil of free America. Autocratic ideals have no place in a democratic society. For more than a generation we have been led to believe that our most talented youths should complete their training in a German university. The stream of German-bound students from this free Republic has been increasingly

large. But this war has made an end of all that. What of the future? No American parent will dare, when this cruel war is over, to send his son to a German university. Where then shall the best minds of our nation and those of our Allies receive the higher culture? Those at all conversant with European systems of education will agree at once that they cannot go to England, or to France, or to any other friendly country. Their systems of culture do not lend themselves to this service.

It may well be, it really must be, that in this the oldest democracy in the world, which God in his wisdom has hidden away behind the sounding sea, the higher learning shall be in the future given to the students of the world. Here, with reverent faith in God and democratic ideals of government, we can train the diplomats of the world. We shall have an open-door diplomacy and a world-serving search for truth. In our great seats of learning, better than in any other place known to men, we can give course and current to the thinking world. Here we can welcome and educate in true piety and unselfish service the leaders of all nations. It is America's opportunity. It is her duty. Shall she allow so great an occasion to pass? I pray that we may at once turn our attention and our united endeavor to this sublime service for God, for country, for civilization, that it may be said of us, as it was said of a long-forgotten city of the remote past, that we have wisely provided to make real in the lives of men the ideal carved over her ancient gateway:

In the midst of the light is the beautiful,
In the midst of the beautiful is the good,
In the midst of the good is God—
The eternal one.

It is America's destiny, her duty to the world, to find this center, that we may abide as a nation under the keeping of the Almighty forever.

THE IMMORTAL CONFLICT

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I

A boy without a memory cannot be educated. A man without a memory needs someone to look after him, or he will go on repeating his mistakes because he is always forgetting what he needs to remember, and especially the one thing he ought always to remember, namely, that it is not the man who makes a mistake, but the man who repeats his mistakes, who is known for a fool. And a nation without a memory is in the same deplorable plight. To remember well the things that ought to be remembered and to profit by them is the rule for a safe, strong, and wise life for every man and for every nation.

The past is not something dead and gone. Whether men care to have anything to do with it or not, it remains a fact that the past has a great deal to do with us. The past is the parent, the producing cause, of the present. Science has taught us by a thousand proofs that the universe is what it is because of what it was, and that men are what they are now because of what men were before. And the big book of history, which is the world's memory, points the one "moral of all human tales" in revealing the truth that, no matter what else has changed, the human heart is still swayed by the same passions as ever. To learn well this lesson and never to forget it in the conduct of life, personal or national, is the one foundation for a sane education.

And now, when the world seems turned upside down, men need to remember these elementary and elemental unchanging realities. For there are voices of confusion telling us that everything is changing, saying that little, if anything, of what we have held as true can be depended on for the future, and bidding us clutch at this or that panacea as the only thing to cure our ills. The past, they say, has little to teach us; for we are Americans of the twentieth century and should promptly cut loose from bygone times, methods, and ideas and set up a brand-new national culture of our own.

They are proposing to run American education, not on a record, but on a prospectus. They are, in fact, telling us to lose our memories and to forget what we shall forget at our peril, namely, that the past has our main lesson to teach us, and that the man who does not see behind the lurid, blinding light of this world-war its deep-lying causes for decades and generations past, and on back to the origins, cannot understand why this war happened, nor how to prevent its happening again, nor even what it is that is now happening. For he who does not remember what has gone before has little means of judging what is happening now, or of forecasting what will come after. It is no time to forget. It is the time to remember everything and to forget nothing.

II

Listen to a voice from long ago, yet so clear and near in its tones that it seems to be speaking now. "There is, we affirm," says Plato, "an immortal conflict now going on and calling for marvelous vigilance. In it our allies are the gods and all good spirits." He is speaking of the age-long conflict of truth with error. It is a clarion call of ancient freedom across the centuries to us, not only to the battle line in France, but to the armies of education in America. Let us listen again in the quiet of our schools and we shall hear the echoing thunders of the long-fought war, not ended yet, between the freedom of knowledge and the debasing slavery of ignorance. And that warfare is the one business of education, the one reason why we need schools at all. What is the past for us? It is experience teaching—and teaching now.

Our struggle in the schools, as it should be in our homes, is against ignorance, the old, ancient, inveterate ignorance with which every generation is born into this world, the ignorance which must be first overcome and then enlightened by effort. It is not an easy task, for we are wrestling, not against flesh and blood, but against the unseen powers of darkness, darkness intellectual and darkness moral. It is then our part in the "immortal conflict," ceaseless and strenuous, "now going on and calling for marvelous vigilance" more loudly than ever.

III

What is the way to win? This is the question that must be answered rightly if we are to keep faith with our country. There is just one way. It is to make the proved truths of experience the one basis for our efforts and the one test of all theories offered for our acceptance. It is the test of common sense. It is also the one scientific test, for science, as Huxley put it, is nothing else than "highly trained common sense" applied to scientific questions. Let us try by this test some of the plausible assertions which are being made.

1. One is that there should be no "formal discipline" in studies. If this means that there should be no strict and regular training of the human mind, as the words naturally imply, the test is easily made. If it means something else, we have no need to consider it. All we need to do is to remember the record of facts. This record tells us that in the world's contests the undisciplined mind has generally been beaten. It has been one of the outstanding lessons of the war, notably so in the defense of Verdun.

2. Another assertion is that no student should be required to take any study which is not "interesting" to him, because if he does not like it he will get little good from it. It is hard to take this seriously. What in the world is to be done, on this basis, with those who find all studies and especially all study uninteresting? This beguiling half-truth breaks on the hard rock of facts. Duty is not always "interesting," but it is always duty. Life is not a series of pleasant elective choices, but it has in it the element of stern compulsion, and most of all—

> When Duty whispers low, "Thou must."

And it is another fact, not fancy, that obedience to duty, however hard and distasteful at first, yields a most "interesting" joy of human life, the joy of the hard-won fight, and leads to the highest freedom, the freedom of assured self-conquest. Is there anything our country needs more?

3. Some are telling us that vocational and technical education is the one thing needful, because everyone should be taught to earn his living. So he should. And nine-tenths of our youths must begin to earn their living early. We grant it. But this utilitarian proposal errs in forgetting some hard facts. This view overlooks the fact that they are more than

animate tools. They are human beings, with minds and hearts as well as hands. If in our just desire to prepare them for making their living we also unjustly fail to prepare them by good general schooling to make their lives better worth living, we shall create a huge proletariat of discontent to curse us, a grave menace to themselves and to the safety of our democracy.

4. One more theory needs notice. It is that we are an independent nation living in the twentieth century and should therefore have a purely American national education without reference to the past. I know no loyal American who wants anything else than that our national history shall be well studied by every boy and girl in the land, and that English shall be the only language used in our elementary schools. Is this all there is in the proposal? Then we can all accept it with enthusiasm. But it needs definition. For we have the right to ask whether it is meant that all elementary studies are to be exclusively national. Is geography to be confined to the geography of our land? How about arithmetic? Is there an American multiplication table? And what of "nature-study"? Are only American animals to be notist? Here is where the theory begins to crack. Our own language and history for the sake of our national unity? Yes, in plenty, and then also the elements of universal knowledge—as much as we can get. We must not forget that an exclusively American culture must tend either to absorb other systems by incorporation or domination, or, failing in that, to impair the vital unity of our international civilized freedom.

IV

It is great to be a true American; it is greater to be a true man or woman here or anywhere. "That all men everywhere may be free" was Lincoln's prayer. Can we not lay aside all prejudice and then read our lesson in the fiery light around us? That lesson is that no freedom is won or held without struggle and without self-denial. That lesson is that mental and moral freedom is not won or held by any human being in any land without whole-minded training in the fundamentals of knowledge, be they pleasant or unpleasant at first, whole-souled obedience to duty, "interesting" or uninteresting, and whole-hearted devotion to the truth won and held by hard effort, not for money, place, or power, but for the sake of living decently in a decent world, made fit to be free.

In our education, as in the war, the "immortal conflict" is now on. In both the same cause is working. And in both may God defend the right!

AN INTERPRETATION OF LIFE IN TERMS OF BEAUTY AND OF COLOR IN TERMS OF MUSIC

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Perhaps in the present war civilization is bursting her chrysalis and the world is but suffering the birth pangs of the coming of a newer and higher interpretation of life, as a journey toward an ideal, physical, mental, and moral.

It is my belief that every man attains his real ambition. I do not mean that he always reaches the goal toward which he professes to aspire, but in his innermost soul he has hopes and ideals that form his character and mold his destiny. If teachers could but recognize the fact that every child is building for himself an ideal that will actually shape his destiny, they would strive, first of all, to develop in the mind of that child a worthy plan for his life.

The child should also be trained so that he will be able to give concrete expression to his thoughts and emotions. Self-expression can be accomplisht only thru the control of material. The study of art is a most valuable means to such an end. I believe that there are many people who would have been better men or women if they had learned the language, art, or trade that was the most natural means of expression for them.

All forms of idealization, physical, moral, and mental, are developt by the education received thru the senses. To develop highly the senses of seeing and hearing is to advance all the education that is subsequently received. Therefore, before any theory of art or music is taught, the sense perception should be developt. And no teaching of theory should ever be nearly equal to the development of the art and musical senses.

Music is so generally understood that I need not dwell upon the value of teaching it. Art is not so well understood nor so well taught, because it has not been put upon a dependable scientific basis. I do not mean that beauty can be proved by science, but I do mean that the study of art is furthered by a general knowledge of the scientific beginnings. All arts are one. All science is a unit. Both science and art are but parts of the totality of human understanding. The pursuit of this understanding we call education.

The music student should know a little about the nature of sound. The art student should know something of the nature of light and color, of perspective, and the theory of design. A small amount of dependable theory makes the study of art strengthen the mind and inspire the soul. Rightly taught, art is the study that does the most to develop the powers of the child into a living force. The art teacher should approach the child with the feeling that he already may have a sense of beauty and a richness of imagination, fresher and in some cases finer than her own.

Art is not taught sufficiently in relation to everyday life. A woman's club which I recently addrest in a clubroom with dirty and poorly arranged walls was studying mural decoration in Italy. The walls of the room in which they met should have been of more importance to them than European walls, which few of them had ever seen or would ever see. The design classes in the public schools spend weary hours on the study of intricate geometrical contortion, when the time would be better spent in making them see the *practical* value of good spacing and the need of *restraint* in the decoration of the things that surround them. Our homes and our cities are often hideous in form and color. This can only be remedied by art education.

Our greatest need of reform lies in the teaching of color. Color work, in school, was sometimes good, as long as teachers depended for guidance on the natural sense of color. This sense was more or less limited, so the educational world was forst to seek a standard method of teaching color. Attempts were made to make color scientific, and the practical results were color that was the worst the world has ever known. The movement was, however, in the right direction.

Light vibrations are too rapid to be measured with sufficient accuracy to invent a theory of scientific color independent of some system of vibration that is easier to compute. The most scientific and educationally valuable of these theories were those that sought to standardize color according to its relation to music. There is actually a physical relationship between light and sound, and it is upon this that the many so-called parallels between color and music are based. Practically all such parallels place red on middle C and divide the one octave of light into six fundamental colors.

For three years I have been teaching color in relation to music and have developt a music-color parallel of my own that seems to have solved the problem. I believe that I am the first music-colorist in America who does not attempt to fit the six equal divisions of light, which we call color, to the seven unequal divisions of the *diatonic* musical scales. I divide the usual six colors into twelve semitones of color. These twelve equal divisions of the color octave exactly fit the twelve semitones of the *chromatic* musical scale. This makes the *diatonic* scales derived from my parallel show a half-tone between E and F and between B and C. It is probably the first music-color parallel in America that exactly fits the one octave of light to one octave of music and so is the first so-called parallel that is really parallel, as far as such a thing is possible. My theory leads past the violent spectral colors to the everyday color that we see in all nature about us. For color, as we use it, is not direct light. Even in the spectrum no other color is as light as yellow and no other as dark as violet. In all there are seven degrees of dark and light in the one octave of light when it is divided into twelve semitones of color. As an experiment, I thought I would try to see how each color would look if represented in each of the seven tone values. I

found that I had a range of color equivalent to the piano keyboard. With color parallel to the notes of the piano, one has only to apply the laws of musical harmony to the color equivalent of musical notes to produce color harmony.

Comparing twenty or more paintings of the Madonna by old masters, I found the color schemes of most to be red, yellow, and blue-green—the do, mi, and sol of the key of C. The early Assyrians, ignorant of the laws of vibration, had a pipe that played C, E, and G. The works of the old music masters prove very significant in color, when translated into color according to my parallel.

A standard color theory would be useful commercially, as well as educationally. The country needs color names that have a definite meaning. Colors come in keys as do music notes. The housewife could enter a store and purchase furnishings that would exactly suit some room if she knew in what color key that room was decorated.

I find color taught in relation to music the easiest color theory to teach. The pupil enjoys it because he finds this theory directly related to another theory of which he already knows something. He likes it also because he finds it dependable, in that it brings good color results. It relates the study of art to music, and it relates both of these arts to science. One of the greatest needs of modern education is the elimination of unnecessary and *unrelated* theories and facts.

Public-school art has suffered from the fact that full credit is not given for it. This lowers it in the mind of the pupil. We have discouraged the pupils who wisht to specialize in art. We have told them to be more practical. We must concede that we have a real and practical need of more art understanding in America. The training of a child's mind to a contemplation of the beauty that surrounds or might be made to surround him is a good way to prevent him from forming an ambition that is selfish or sordid.

It seems cruel to talk of art when the world is bleeding and in tears. But the only artist who ever succeeded to any exalted measure was the one who had suffered. It is a world that has known a recent and terrible agony that will find its balance by turning again to a higher ideal for the interpretation of life.

Our threadbare theories, our inane conventionalities, our mediaeval smugness, are all rudely cast aside, and we stand naked in soul before the God who made us. Shall we try to develop the finer senses, the choicest gifts he has given us? For ourselves it may be impossible to redeem our lost heritage. But we should permit the children to develop and should help them as best we can in our weak way. They should enjoy art and music to the fullest extent. If we could only learn to see as a child sees, to keep the fresh vision of youth; if we could feel his frankness of purpose and keep his freshness of mind, we should regain much of the power we have lost to interpret life in terms of beauty.

PATRIOTISM—PAST, PRESENT, AND FUTURE

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The experiences of the past four years have convinst most of us that the most important function of education is to fit the common men for the common duties of citizenship. We have in this Republic of ours a strange gap in the machinery of education. On the one hand institutions of higher learning, so called, think habitually in terms of science and concern themselves little, if at all, with the problems of the free school, which is America's real educational crown of glory. At the other end of the line stands, not free school system, but a myriad of free school systems, each under the control of a board which thinks its educational thoughts and spends its educational funds with reference to one particular locality. Its horizon is bounded by the limits of the particular unit, whether it be the unit of township, of county, or of state. Between these two there is the vast educational area of no man's land, the area for educational thought upon those problems which concern the nation as a whole, or that larger problem of the relation of nation to nation.

The patriotic duty of educators in this country is to see that every child in the next generation is possest of certain simple, fundamental principles of justice and honesty, the rights of man and the rights of nations, which shall constitute a new background for this polyglot nation. The only patriotism which can command the unanimous and loyal enthusiasm of all races and kindreds and tongues which make up our nation is the call which teaches principles so broad as to thrill the heart of every race. America is the one nation which seems to have been designed by Providence to construct a platform of patriotism world-wide in its scope.

We do not need a more complicated background for our education; what we need is a simpler one. We do not need to multiply the subjects in our courses of study, but we need to put back of all those subjects, clear and distinct, the simple ideals which can furnish the basis for a new patriotism, a patriotism that thinks in terms of justice, not of gain, that looks to the rights and liberties of all mankind, not merely to the interests of that little favored group which dwells upon the continent which we call our own.

I recently gave an interesting dinner in a Yiddish restaurant on the East Side in New York. The guests were twenty Jewish leaders of thought, men born in Russia, but who had been changed by the subtle influences of our ideals from Russians into real Americans. I askt them this question, which they tried to answer, with but half-success: "What are the mental processes thru which you pass when ceasing to be Russians and becoming real Americans? If we can find exactly the ideas which have wrought this transformation in you, they will give us a basis for an education which can be given to other foreigners with the same results." The answers

which they gave compose this creed, partial yet suggestive, seeking to explain the things which are the essence of America:

I believe in America because of her ideals, workt out in institutions that are just.

She gives to everyone the right to rise;
To take a part in making equal laws;
To hold his neighbor equal to himself;
To speak the truth and to resent a lie;
To serve no man as master, but by toil
To earn the right to call himself a man.

I believe in the world-mission of American ideals. By them, exprest in terms of nations, I believe:

Right can be made to vanquish force and fraud;
Justice to reign, sustained by potent law;
The weaker states to live as live the strong.

I believe in America because she thinks in terms of justice, not of gain, and holds her noble heritage the *right* of all.

A man of foreign blood or foreign birth who can repeat this creed and understand its inner meaning is well on the way to being what we call an American.

We are told that we have today two and one-half million men in arms. Of these a million are equipt and trained, simply because the leaders really led. They taught the people just what must be done, and they in turn secured the doing. It was constructive patriotism to insist that things were wrong and to demand insistently that they be righted. The men to whom the glory there in France is due are first the men who fight; but next to them it is due to the men who roused this nation to its danger and made us prepare.

The first line is already in action, killing Huns, because the leaders, who saw the needs as you and I see the needs in education, cried and cried again and would not, for the love of country, hold their peace.

But what of the second line? There is not a worthy teacher in this house today who does not know that the task of making the world safe for democracy requires two steps, not one. The first is the defeat of Germany, a military defeat, absolute, final, and conclusive; and for that the patriotic zeal of those who lead and those who follow has markt out the way.

But what of the second step? It must be to show that democracy can mobilize also her spiritual forces; that she can so train her people as to enable them to do, with equal efficiency and devotion, everything which autocracy has been able to do. But this means tremendous preparation. Where is the prophet of education who will cry aloud, in words that must be heard, that we, the fighters, are not yet equipt, many not even trained, for battle? Do the people know that educationally we are still in the age of nullification? That any state or any smaller unit may elect to leave its children ignorant, untrained, and thus unfit to take a part in making a

success of this experiment? Do they know, as we know, that a great army of our teachers is underpaid, ill trained, and unprovided with the things that they should have to make their work effective? Do they realize, as we all realize, that the experiment of free government cannot be really tried until we place behind it a system of education which will not only offer but compel the use of well-equipt, sound, educational facilities? This nation will stand or fall according to the enlightenment or the ignorance of its people. The most wasteful thing in life is to neglect to give each child the chance to develop his powers.

Nothing must be allowed to deprive the child of any family or of any district of his right to be made to take an education which will make of him the best possible American. If he lives in a section too poor to give him this, we must look to the state or the nation to see that he gets what he needs, whether he will or no, whether his region will or no.

The leaders in preparedness for armed defense have shown us how success is gained, by an insistent clamor for the things on which success depends. They raised a cry which would not be denied, and miracles were wrought. Where are the signs of an awakened mind regarding education? We can see no signs—the leaders have not clamored.

We are the leaders. If we fail to lead, to clamor with insistent voice for what we know to be essential to the cause we serve, the failure of the things for which our armies fight will be our failure. What can we do? What would our leaders in khaki do in such a state as ours? If they did not rear resentment with unceasing zeal, demanding instant action, we should say, "We lean on broken reeds. Our leaders fail to lead."

But we are failing, and our cause is just as vital to the state as theirs.

Therefore, I say that this great convention must not dare adjourn until our requisition for supplies goes to the nation in specific terms. This is our day, our first great chance—we dare not fail. All the world is advancing; shall we stand and wait?

SOME EDUCATIONAL VALUES OF WAR

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This war is the most tremendously important event in all the history of man, and we are just now very near the greatest crisis the world has ever seen. The war and its needs are the chief occupation of nearly a score of the leading nations of the world. Freedom versus domination of some kind has been the stake of every war since the first tick of time, but in this colossal contest the issues of all previous wars are pooled. What happened in the world before 1914 already begins to seem a bit far off, unreal, and insignificant by comparison with the mighty fates that crowd the here and the now. We are making history, as it were, a century a month, and

changes of sentiment and activity that once took a generation may now occur in a week. As Lincoln said, the country could not remain half free and half slave, and so we have decreed that the world cannot be half autocratic and half democratic, but must be all one or all the other. In the old era that closed four years ago, how easy, selfish, thoughtless, careless, sometimes mean and sordid, we were, but now men do every day deeds that equal or surpass the most splendid achievements of the heroes of old which our textbooks praise. The divinest figure of the past suffered and gave His life freely for others ("Greater love hath no man than this that he lay down his life for his friends"), but hundreds of thousands are dying for just that end in their way today.

We have praised unity and fraternity, but our people are still a congeries of a score of nationalities which had known little of the melting-pot. But now the masses and classes, capital and labor, regardless of color, are being bound together in camp and trench by the strongest of all human ties, that of brotherhood in arms, so that the nation is now achieving a new and higher unity. What is more and even better yet is the comradeship of our soldiers with those of our Allies, so that we are now one with the men of England, France, and Italy by ties that no treaty or league of nations could ever effect, for it is the bond of a common cause, a common life, a common enemy, and perhaps a common grave. Neither we nor they dreamed that these men in the third and golden decade of life, from the farm, the factory, the shop, the college, could become in a year so stalwart of body and of such heroic mode of soul, and as we realize what they have become and are doing and that their sentiments and ideals will dominate this country for the next generation, we feel satisfied and proud as well as safe.

Oh, the splendor and glory of "the day" that has come to us Americans! We have our "place in the sun," for it is ours to save Europe and the world for democracy. From England we hear how men have forgotten whether their ancestors came over with William the Conqueror, or whether their mates are rich or poor, educated or ignorant; and so here we ask no longer whether men descended from the "Mayflower" Puritans, the Cavaliers, or are Sons of the Revolution, but only whether they have the one quality that alone makes man complete—courage, and the temper that can risk life for something dearer than the individual life. Thus a new order of nobility and a better natural grading of man is at the door. A French peasant marcht from the south to the north of France and was so imprest by the beauty of the country and the glory of the cities of his native land that he wrote that it would be a high privilege if he were counted worthy to die for so glorious a fatherland. Another vowed that he would keep himself pure and make himself as perfect as possible in body and in soul, in order that if he were called to make the supreme sacrifice his offering might be worthy. Of "soldiers three" who went over the top, one, a Protestant, was fatally wounded at the barbed wire before the enemy's trench and called to one

of his colleagues, a young Catholic priest, to creep out if he could and administer the last sacrament before he died. The priest went over the hell strip and had just extended the crucifix over his friend when he too was shot. The third friend, a Jewish Rabbi, seeing the situation, crept to the dying man, seized the crucifix, and gave the dying man absolution, the Jew absolving a Protestant Christian by a Catholic rite, illustrating thus the sympathy of religions or the unity of brotherhood that underlies them all in the great cause. The French have collected thousands of these authentic incidents, these new *acta sanctorum*, and on these base their exhortation to fight now and regenerate France later gloriously, in such a way that none of these sacrifices shall be in vain, for never was there a cause so well worth suffering and dying for.

Now our every energy must focus on winning the war, putting out the fire in this world-conflagration, but as Chicago, Baltimore, San Francisco, and once London, reduced to ashes, had to be rebuilt afterward, so when peace comes we shall have to enter upon the long and stupendous task of reconstructing our industrial, economic, social, political, hygienic, moral, and even religious life and institutions. Things we have never dared to doubt are now open questions. It is a new cosmos that is about to be, and it is our tremendous task to use these opportunities and incentives in a way to make the world enough better than it was to pay for all this horrible sacrifice and to usher the rising generation into a new kingdom of man, just as at the present moment we must get all the virtues and abate all the evils of militarism and find out not one but many moral equivalents of war. In this situation, which is most of it beyond all precedent, what is the chief duty of every teacher in the land?

It is, in a word, to utilize to its very uttermost and at every possible point the tremendous energy of interest and incidents to inundate our educational system at every grade and in every topic with the very purest spirit of loyalty, sacrifice, courage, and hardihood, and of national and racial solidarity which has its culmination in the metal of our heroes at the front. It is the boys and girls now in the schools that will win or lose the Great War after the war. The spirit of our boys over there is itself a splendid epistle, known and read of all men, of what the school, among other agencies, has done for them. The new method of grading the merits of schools and school systems now is by what they are doing in all the complex processes of food production and conservation, and in all other war modifications of school activities, in which our census shows enormous diversity of service in different states and cities. Some schools and individual teachers have shown something near to pedagogic genius in using war interests in the teaching of geography. Some teachers of history have achieved remarkable results in turning on the war zest, realizing that present happenings are more significant for their pupils than all the events of the remote past. Other schools start war museums, encourage war diaries, correspondence,

compositions, debates, war scrapbooks, and even poems. Germany announces that her schoolboys and girls have written between two and three millions of war poems, the best of which are rewarded by prizes and printing, for she recognizes that poetry is the vernacular of the heart, that the heart makes disposition and is three-fourths of the soul. Several of our states and more cities have organized junior military training in high schools, while more hold that all-around physical training is the best foreschool for military training. Others hold that modified Boy Scout activities are best to develop military qualities in the teens. The more work the schools can accomplish in selling Liberty bonds, War Savings stamps, doing Red Cross work, singing and hearing the best camp songs, gathering posters and slogans, reading up about the Kaiser and his six sons, who, if Germany wins, will sit on six thrones, the more countless activities born of the present emergency the better. Concessions as to high requirements for graduation and promotions in school and college are amply justified in the minds of all who realize the larger education that comes when the life of the community, the country, and the world flows over into and irrigates the school so that it can teach life as never before. We must make no concessions to the narrow jingoism that would abandon now the study of the German language and history. German pedagogues, unique in their hatred of everything English, agree that this language and literature must now be studied as never before, and the same is true here, for whatever the issues of the war German will be heeded as never before for practical if not for cultural purposes.

The war is even more transforming colleges and universities. Chemistry gives special courses and promotes research on explosives and gas warfare. Physics tends to focus on electricity, projectiles, and the principles that underlie the mechanism of aëroplanes and submarines. Biology emphasizes eugenics and hygiene. Geologists help lay out trenches. History is more military and diplomatic and has a new interest in international law. Sociology and economics are absorbed in the impending reconstructions of all our industrial and social institutions. Theology, law, and most of all medicine are more practical, for everywhere pure science is yielding the saddle to applied science, while some academic departments are being neglected, as if the students felt that they might be condemned as unessential industries. We cannot check nor very much direct these trends, and they will increase every month the war lasts. It is simply common sense to accept and make the very most and best of them.

Finally, the future is our Muse. She is now invested with a promise and potency unsurpast in any prophetic age. "Our hearts, our hopes, our prayers, our faith triumphant o'er fears" are always heard. The best things have not happened yet, and so all history so far is only the prelude to the all hail and hereafter. In these times it is indeed bliss to be alive, to be young heaven. Old men are seeing visions and young men dreaming

dreams, because if all this awful sacrifice and slaughter are not to be in vain there must emerge a new world wherein liberty and justice for every man, woman, and child will prevail, wherein right and not might rules, where Kaiserism in every form, even that of trusts, monopolies, profiteering, and the political boss, a superstate and the superman, dogma, autocracy, and militarism shall be done away with, and the true kingdom of man's soul shall be made safe by defeating German militarism and kept safe on one or another of the great plans, British, French, or perhaps better American, for a league of nations.

THE WAR AND UNIVERSITY REFORM

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Outside of the Army the most necessary, the most efficient, and the most powerful organization in the world is organized education. It has required this war to arouse the nation to a consciousness of this fact. But the war has also compelled the educational forces of the nation to a realization of the pressing need of more efficient and complete organization and of cooperation for national efficiency. The war is demanding of education definite, tangible, and practical results. The schools have responded with a fiery and passionate enthusiasm unexpected by the general public. We now have and always will have the second, if not the first, place in the heart of the nation. However, the brightness of our present success must not blind us to the splendid anticipations of the future.

This monstrous war has had, and will have, many good effects upon the universities of our land. I wish to call your attention to some changes that have been produced by the war, to some that will become definite reforms, and then to prophesy others that must follow if the redemption of our universities is to be in any wise comparable to the profound and permanent changes in our social and political order. Few governments have ever experienst such a fundamental and far-reaching transformation in the short space of twelve months as the government of the United States has now undergone. Set your face toward the future. We shall not return; we cannot return. Shall not the universities of this land realize that they are called upon to make corresponding adjustments? It is obviously certain that every institution that does not adjust will be in imminent danger of decay and death.

A few months ago I sent out letters to 150 universities. I askt the authorities to specify the changes and reforms that the war has demanded, to designate such as are likely to be permanent, and to suggest any anticipated reforms. During a transition period like this it is difficult to tell what are and should be only temporary changes and what will strike deep enough to be called reforms. But the most moderate and cautious con-

servatism cannot survive this superhuman vigor and activity without some rare and striking modifications. Is it not the business of higher education to *anticipate the future?*

Five universities have instituted *special scientific research work*. Two coast institutions have *naval training*. Baker University and Lehigh University have developt *civil engineering* departments, and the latter has added *shipbuilding*. Bowdoin and Tufts colleges and Johns Hopkins University have organized courses in *navigation*. Eighteen universities have establisht *military engineering*. Ten of these are state institutions and eight are private.

When we remember that for years a controversy has been waged over allowing college credit for bookkeeping, stenography, and typewriting, it is interesting to learn that a dozen universities, out of those reporting, have establisht such courses, and many others have put increast emphasis upon such work.

Wireless telegraphy has become a vital part of the work in 47 of the 140 institutions reporting, and *signal service* has been establisht in 40 colleges and universities. I must emphasize the fact that these figures only represent the changes and courses adopted since and because of the war, and that only 140 institutions are included. The results indicate only general tendencies.

Fifty-six report that courses in *military conversational French* have been establisht and enthusiastically supported. Thirty-five institutions have establisht departments of *home economics*, and two-thirds of those reporting are giving courses on *food conservation* for war purposes. Some thirty have organized courses for the *medical side* of Red Cross work. Sixty-four report the inauguration of courses in *military science* and *reserve officers' training corps*. I quote from President G. Stanley Hall:

> Never was the need of the best university work so great as now, because at present the cry is, "Put out the fire," but later we shall have to rebuild vast areas on a new and better plan; industry, society, religion, family, will all have to be reconstructed, like Chicago after her great fire, and this will test every ability. Of course you have noted the academic trend all along the line over to the technique and away from the pure cultures, from humanity to the *real* stage. We are having one of our best thesis men working on these changes. Every department here is modified in its spirit and in its field, and it would take a long time to tell you the changes that the war has wrought even in my own work.

As incomplete and indefinite as this material must of necessity be concerning *changes* and what may become *reforms*, it is undisputably suggestive and stimulating to the would-be educational prophet. The deepest and most sacred thing behind all of it is a spirit of educational devotion to the needs of our nation never known among us before. Nearly every page manifests wider and more national views of higher education.

I beg of you to tolerate the boldness of a few suggestions concerning *probable reforms* in institutions of higher learning. If they never come to

pass you will lose nothing save the few minutes I am to speak concerning these epoch-making achievements.

1. It is obviously certain and desirable that higher education shall become more nationalized. This supreme crisis has demonstrated the need of nationalizing education from the lowest to the highest forms. This nationalization must come from national financial support, from nationalized aims, and from greater unified action. In our higher institutions, departments and courses of study have been originated and developt in the past mainly to meet *individual* and *local* needs. It was assumed that the nation would establish such schools as are needed to serve her ends. Do we not now realize that higher education has been largely pursuing a kind of *detacht ideal?*

2. The foregoing consideration suggests certain definite lines of *university reform* for the future. We must not, we cannot, escape becoming a world-wide commercial nation. To meet this demand in any adequate way there must be definite, practical courses in everything that pertains to *navigation.* In order that we may respond to our country's needs, such departments must be establisht in many universities. In less than five years the oceans will be dotted with ships flying the Stars and Stripes. May the pictures of an inspired imagination move the educational world to action *now.*

3. This increast commerce of the world, especially with South America, calls for a decided emphasis on, and preference for, all the modern languages. Let us bury the dead of all kinds and move on.

4. Aviation, wireless, and all kindred sciences must have a specific place in our universities. Such courses must not stop with a slight familiarity with these sciences. They must aim definitely at national service and at practical air and water navigation.

5. As a means of settling the great problems of the war and of any successful prevention of such a world-calamity in the future, *sociology* must become even more fundamental than it now is. *Universal biological sociology* founded on anthropology, ethnology, and psychology must become the common knowledge of the people. Only by the development of such a *sociological consciousness* will we arrive at any reasonable toleration of different governments, religions, and customs.

6. These additions and extensions, with others that will doubtless come, call for *greater freedom and adaptability to individual needs in our university courses.* I foresee the complete collapse of our time-honored college course.

7. There exists a certain kind of criterion and university standardization that must be banisht from among us. It is not necessary that every university should have everything that every other similar institution has or be discredited. If national service is to be the chief aim of higher educa-

tion, then uniformity in university courses is a ridiculous misconception. Sympathetic helpfulness and cooperation must take the place of narrow-minded criticism.

8. We must assume a different kind of relation to foreign universities, especially in those countries with which we are otherwise so closely bound. The core of any serious pro-Germanism in this country was mainly due to the relation of German science and German universities to American universities during the past quarter of a century or more. Let us now establish a cooperative relation with the universities of our Allies. Let us begin now to forge thoro chains that shall bind us after the common interests of war have disappeared. *This Association should not adjourn without appointing a committee with means and power to formulate plans for future action.*

9. If the national government does not establish a dozen or more universities backt by the most liberal appropriations from Congress, then the national government should establish a large number of free liberal scholarships in the various institutions of higher learning. By such scholarships the government might encourage and partly control the organization and distribution of departments aimed to serve more directly and specifically national needs.

10. American universities must become the centers of unlimited inventive genius. To stimulate invention and scholarship of the highest type, I am praying for what seems to me one of the fundamental needs of our civilization. What this country needs more than anything else is an endowed higher institution of learning where anyone can study practically anything for which there is a reasonable demand, without a penny's cost and by means of financial aid to deserving students wherever necessary. There should be no entrance requirements. The only question should be the personal one—am I prepared to do the work to which I aspire? Personal liberty would soon lead to proper adjustment. There should be no course of study to complete and no time limit or graduation. From this institution no one would ever graduate. Students should be permitted to work as fast and as long as they desire. The student should be told that he can go one year, twenty, or a lifetime, just as he deems it most profitable, that he has an opportunity to make discoveries of any kind, and that such are his forever. He should understand that his future life will depend, not upon what diplomas and institutions are back of him, but upon what he carries within, upon what he is able to do.

It must be a clear-cut divergence from the old system. Such a system will automatically eliminate all persons without a deep and abiding desire for education and will develop the most earnest set of intellectual workers ever assembled on earth. Pronounce it a dream if you like. Dreams more fantastic than this have been realized. I shall work for it until I dream my last dream.

THE NEW AMERICANISM

FRANKLIN K. LANE, SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR, WASHINGTON, D.C.

I have come 5,000 miles straightaway across the sea and the continent to be able to talk to you for a few minutes this morning.

The last time I heard "America" sung was on a Japanese ship, coming from the Hawaiian Islands to San Francisco, filled with Japanese, Chinese, Koreans, Filipinos, Australians, Indians, Scotchmen, Irishmen, and a sprinkling of Americans; and all united in singing it with the same gusto that you have shown. There is only one other song that has today the same international significance, and that is the "Marseillaise." "America, the beautiful!" I heard it sung last on a bit of a plateau looking up into a wonderful canyon on the island of Oahu and down on to the ocean—that ocean of so many colors that Mark Twain when he visited the islands described it properly as a shipwreckt rainbow. And in front of me those who sang it were the representatives of all the nations that line the Pacific Ocean, beginning at New Zealand, Australia, India, Siam, and the islands, Malay Peninsula, China, the Philippines, and all around the Pacific until we come to the United States.

You have not sung the "Star-Spangled Banner," but I must tell you of that. I traveled up to see the volcano on the island of Hawaii, that place of profoundest mystery, a place where within one year there has arisen out of the bed of the crater itself a mountain, or two mountains, forst right up from the bottom. And traveling beyond that, across great lava flows, I came out into a coffee plantation; and there I was met by a school teacher. I must give you her name because I would like to do honor to her and to all who are like her. Her first name I do not know; but everybody in the Hawaiian Islands calls her Ben—Ben Taylor. She had 135 children gathered there around the flag—Japanese, Koreans, half-Chinese, half-Hawaiians, Portuguese, and Americans—and they all stood in reverence before that flag at salute and sang the "Star-Spangled Banner." Each child then raised his hand and swore an oath of fealty and loyalty to one flag and one country. Over the desk was a blackboard, and on that blackboard was registered the fact that every child in that school owned a Thrift Stamp. On that blackboard was also registered this more pregnant fact, that the school had a school garden and that 85 per cent of the children workt in that school garden.

We who live on the Atlantic and we who live on the Pacific side of this continent do not have what I would call a Pacific Ocean sense. You have got to sail out thru the Golden Gate and beyond the islands and far into the middle of that great ocean before you realize that there is a future civilization there, a world that is just budding, just opening to the light. We sent missionaries there 100 years ago—men and women from New England who went to spread the gospel. They spread our institutions, our love for the

right things; and that group of islands today is one great missionary to the whole Orient, for out of those islands there is being cast, as radium casts its light, a sense and a consciousness of what civilization means, and those little tots of three, five, ten, and fifteen years of age, of all these nationalities that are foreign to us—those little tots are being brought up, not merely with a deep adoration for our flag, but with a real sense of what that flag means.

Five thousand miles and more beyond that there is a land that is under the Stars and Stripes, the Philippines, where 10,000 teachers are today teaching 800,000 Philippine children the English language—and all a united country. They tell you wherever you may go that there are places—spots—that are weak; spots where we are not united. I have been thruout this country. There is no such spot.

On one of the islands my car was stopt by a group of Chinese and Hawaiians and Japanese who were giving what they call a *luau* to the men who were going to the front from that island—a banquet given by those men, of foreign blood, most of them, to the soldiers that were going to France. And I went into the banquet, and in that restaurant, which was a Japanese restaurant, there were the Food Administration's rules, the wheatless day and the meatless day. You cannot beat that spirit! It makes no difference what drives they make in France; it makes no difference how they may march men in solid phalanx one after another to their death; it makes no difference how many great guns they may have that will shoot 75 miles; it makes no difference how many rapid-fire guns they may have that will mow men down; it makes no difference what gases they may have to throw out upon our boys and suffocate them; it makes no difference what ships may sail beneath the seas and sneak up on hospital ships as they carry nurses across the waters, you cannot beat the spirit of the American people. Wars have never been determined by single battles; wars have never been determined by the thrust of the bayonet alone; wars have always been determined by the spirit of the people and the sense of their own righteous cause.

We have determined upon great things in this nation; we have determined upon some things with regret. Some things have been forst upon us. We have determined, first of all, that we shall meet force with force, because there is but one language that Germany understands, and that comes out of the mouth of the big gun; and that language we will speak until we see a Germany that is repentant.

We have determined, too, that no matter how great the need, there shall be no limit set to the number of men that we will send, of the number of aëroplanes or the number of guns. We will put every boy and every factory and every dollar and every hand at the service of Christian civilization.

We know why we are in this war. It is not for glory; it is not that we may write a great page in the martial history of this world; it is not for any addition to our territory; it is not out of pride because Germany so long and so indecently flouted us and jeered at us. Ultimately, when you come down to ask the real reason, you know that this is the reason: That there is such a thing as Christian civilization, and that means that while force is in the world and while there must be an appeal to force, civilization means that physical force shall be limited by moral force. The rule of the Stone Age and the principles of the Stone Age do not govern us. Man's mind has developt; man has learned how to organize; man has mastered the forces of nature. Within our lifetime man has at last learned how to conquer the air itself. We are learning how to master this world, but we have evolved something more than physical or mental greatness; we have evolved a moral and spiritual nature, and those natures have arisen in this world to master and put a limit upon and make impossible the ascendancy of the Stone Age instinct.

And now let me ask you to make some new determinations, not merely that we shall prosecute this war to a finish and to a glorious end, but that you shall make this war of use to America. It will be loss enough, but it is a great challenge—a supreme challenge. Let me ask you to make these determinations if you will: That we shall teach the American what Americanism is, and that we shall teach the American what Americanism is not. And the burden of doing that must fall largely upon the teachers whom you represent. What god do you serve? Under what flag do you march? What is this Americanism? It is not internationalism; it is the most intense nationalism, because thru this nation mankind is to be served. It is a consciousness thru our whole being that things can be achieved by work and by will and that is the lesson that you are to carry—that you are carrying, that you are preaching every day to the children of America.

And how can you do it? You can do it by teaching American history in the American tongue, by giving American standards, by letting American boys and girls know that the history of the United States is not a mere series of fugitive incidents, remote, separated, unrelated, but is a philosophy going thru the history of one hundred and forty years; by teaching them that those men in America are noble who contribute to the elevation of American ideals, and that those men are ignoble who do not add to the march of this philosophy of mankind.

Americanism must be to us a political religion. Religion is a consciousness that there is something better than yourself toward which you are striving. That man is religious who believes or who knows that he stands in the compelling presence of an ideal, and an ideal is always something that you are not, but that you hope to be. Christ is the representative of our religion. We see him on the cross, and to us he represents sympathy—

sympathy for man's suffering, sympathy for the torture thru which men move in order to work their way up the Jacob's ladder to heaven.

> For what are we but creatures of the night led forth by day.
> Who needs must falter and with stammering steps
> Spell out our paths in syllables of pain?

Christ is representative of suffering and of sympathy, and we look to him, no matter what our creed may be, no matter what dogmatic faith we may have; and if we get into ourselves the love of those things he represents, we are Christians. So too let us get within ourselves the consciousness that there is an American ideal, that there is something that is represented by us primarily and beyond all other people; for here in this land there was given first expression to liberty and justice, and justice thru liberty, by which men rise; not disorder, laziness, and wilfulness, because thru these men fall. Let us exalt the virtues that we know Americans have in their hearts, and then we shall be true Americans, no matter upon what soil we are born, nor how we may have been brought up.

We have come upon a new day in the United States—a great day. War may not be necessary; certain things that develop out of war are necessary; and if we could not get them in any other way, war would be worth while; but I know that we can get them in other ways. We need moral, physical courage, coordination, discipline, a sense of something bigger than ourselves toward which we look. There is a big man and a little man in every one of us; and this day is great because the big man has come out. I want that to stick.

We have come upon a new day, a day in which we appreciate the man who fights for us, a day in which we appreciate the mind that leads us, a day in which we have sympathy for mankind and an understanding of its needs. We have walkt out of the plain and come up upon a high point, and now we are surveying the world with great curiosity and are wondering to ourselves what is this thing that causes Canada, with a population of only 7,000,000 people, to put 500,000 of her boys across the water. There must be something great in that, something splendid and noble, that will cause such a sacrifice. What is it that has made Russia revolt—Russia, the greatest disappointment of all the war to us, so hopeless and chaotic? And yet it is not in our hearts to feel that the seed sown there will die. She will come back, and good sense will master. Do you know the trouble with Russia? Russia started right, but Russia had no George Washington, no Jefferson, no Franklin, no Alexander Hamilton, and she had no people who had been trained for two hundred and fifty or more years in local self-government; and she had been submarined, torpedoed, for years and years by propaganda, by people who were dreamers, who were visionaries, who thought that the world could be turned upside down in a day and that men could be made anew.

But Russia has 180,000,000 people, 80 per cent of whom cannot read nor write; and as soon as they have a public-school system, as soon as they have teachers who teach them what order is and how slowly men must grow, Russia will become a great power in the world again. Russia is made of people who are young, and the young have to grow, and with them we must be tender, and for them we must be sympathetic. I believe in Russia because I believe that it is impossible that a people so young should die so quickly, because I believe that you cannot—and the Kaiser cannot—step upon Russia as he would step upon a spider and put it out, because the human soul is not to be extinguisht that way.

Now we have come up to a new day, a day in which we want to know what Russia is to be, a day in which we want to know what is the matter with China—China, that adopted republican institutions. Factionalism is her trouble. She does not realize that the foundation of liberty is order, and that personal ambition must be subordinated to the welfare of the nation. She has not yet grown to have a national sense.

And so as we from this mountain top overlook the world we see that the world is being made anew, and we have in our hands the power to make our part of it what we will. We have in our hands the power to see that social conditions shall not be as they have been. We have it in our power to see that economic conditions shall not be as they have been. We have the power to see that this world shall take a great impetus from the shedding of blood, just as it took a great impetus from the shedding of blood two thousand years ago. And I say now, as I know the country says:

> As Christ died to make men holy,
> Let us die to keep men free,
> God's truth is marching on!

THE WORLD'S FOOD SUPPLY AND WOMAN'S OBLIGATION

JANE ADDAMS, HULL-HOUSE, CHICAGO, ILL.

During the last three years every sympathetic man and woman in the United States has been at times horribly opprest with the consciousness that widespread famine has once more returned to the world. At moments there seemed to be no spot upon which to rest one's mind with a sense of well-being.

One recalled Servia, where three-fourths of a million people, out of the total population of three million, had perisht miserably of typhus and other diseases superinduced by long-continued privations; Armenia, where, in spite of her heart-breaking history, famine and pestilence have never stalkt so uncheckt; Palestine, where the old horrors of the Siege of Jerusalem, as described by Josephus, have been revived; and perhaps the crowning horror of all, the "Way of the Cross"—so called by the Russians because it

is easily traced by the continuous crosses raised over the hastily dug graves—beginning with the Galician thorofares and stretching south and east for fourteen hundred miles, upon which a distracted peasantry ran breathlessly until stopt by the Caspian Sea, or crost the Ural Mountains into Asia only to come back again because there was no food there.

There is no doubt that many Americans experienst a great sense of relief, therefore, when Congress finally establisht a Department of Food Administration for the United States, and when Mr. Hoover, who had spent two and a half years in Europe in intimate contact with the backwash of war, made his first appeal to his fellow-countrymen in the name of the food shortage of the entire world, insisting that "the situation is more than war, it is a problem of humanity." We were relieved to know that there was something we could actually do about it, and we received the instructions for our intelligent action and guidance with genuine gratitude. I firmly believe that thousands of people are striving every day to carry out those instructions in a spirit of humility, and cherish the hope that their efforts may prove to be of genuine human service.

Mr. Hoover tells us that the food of the helpless Belgians has now become entirely dependent upon the exertions of the American farmer, and thru the destruction of men and ships one hundred million more men, women, and children have come to depend largely for their daily bread upon what can be sent from America—upon what the farmer may produce and what the women may save.

The last harvest in France was less than 40 per cent of her pre-war harvests and is less than one-fourth of what she needs to feed her own people. France has had the heaviest burden of wounded, sick, and crippled men and in addition one-thirtieth of her population are refugees from the war zone, their homes having been destroyed and their fields devastated.

Some parts of Italy are never able to produce enough food for all the population, even in normal times, which largely accounts for the enormous emigration every year to South America and to the United States. There has been little emigration since the war began, and the shortage of food in the southern provinces is heartbreaking. In addition they are caring for the half-million refugees driven southward by the Austrian drive in October, 1917, thirty million of whom are found as far south as Sicily, again superimposed upon the normal population.

In Roumania there has been an increase of 50 per cent of population on the one-third of the land that is left to them, while at the same time the crops there have decreast 50 per cent. The suffering has been incredible. Wounded soldiers in the very hospitals have died of starvation and have had their feet frozen in the hospital beds.

Altho Russia is the land of modern famines, she has never experienst such loss of life as this great war has brought her. Eight millions of her people have actually perisht, and the myriad soldiers in the Russian army,

never adequately equipt with munitions, food, and clothing, have been reduced to the last extremity. In addition Russia is suffering from a complete disorganization of her transportation facilities, so that whatever grain there may be in the south cannot possibly be shipt to Petrograd or Finland. There is something very touching in the belief revealed from time to time that if the situation could but be clearly stated in America food would at once be sent.

We all know that practically every nation in Europe is living on rations and is destined to suffer privation for a long time. Our best efforts will no more than relieve them. The question is, Can we, the United States, produce enough for ourselves and enough more to make up the most bitter deficiencies?

If we ask what has been done before when there seemed to be too little food in the world we shall find that the deficiency has always been corrected by the application of human intelligence and human labor to the soil. The one thousand acres nearest to Paris are so carefully cultivated that if the population of France should be doubled it could still be fed entirely from its own soil if it were all thus skilfully tilled.

In response to the demands made in the United States last spring two million back-yard and vacant-lot gardens were establisht in 1917, and the first war crop of potatoes was 452 million bushels—an increase of one hundred million bushels over the previous year. Since the war began England has given over a million and a half acres of hitherto idle land to the production of wheat and potatoes, and three hundred thousand women of the leisure class have gone into agricultural work.

Of the eight million women engaged in gainful occupations in the United States less than two million are in agriculture. It is estimated that at least three hundred thousand more must take the places of the two hundred and fifty thousand men already drafted from the farms, just as a million women are quickly taking the places of the million men drafted from various industrial occupations.

Food, above every other production in the world, responds to individual attention. It is greatly benefited by being treated in small quantities, and quickly indicates the skill of the caretaker. It is quite possible that a more intensive method of American farming would actually produce more food; that we need "integration of function," as the economists say.

Equally important with increast production is the necessity of saving food if we would "increase our exports to our Allies to a point which will enable them to feed their own people." The women responsible for twenty-two millions of kitchens of the nation are askt to give up certain old habits, to modify accustomed ways, to make a technical study of resources at hand and of what a family may conscientiously use. They are also urged to evoke the interest of their households and a sense of participation in a patriotic undertaking. The effort centers about three general propositions.

First, elimination of waste, which we have all learned from our mothers and grandmothers, altho we too often forget to apply it. Second, an actual reduction of consumption. Perhaps this can best be illustrated from sugar. Third, the substitution of foods which cannot be readily shipt for those which ship to the greatest advantage—corn for wheat, poultry and fish for drest meats, and the others with which you are all so familiar.

There are other things which women are doing in addition to careful administration of their kitchens. Food conservation may mean many things, as has recently been pointed out in a circular issued by the Department of Educational Propaganda of the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense. It may mean direct purchasing thru the parcel post, municipal markets, cooperative delivery, just as the new agricultural movement in North Dakota and elsewhere includes road-making, storage, transportation, cooperative distribution, and many other things.

From the time we were little children we have all of us, at moments at least, cherisht overwhelming desires to be of use in the great world, to play a conscious part in its progress. The difficulty has always been in attaching our vague purposes to the routine of our daily living, in making a synthesis between our ambitions to cure the ills of the world on the one hand and the need to conform to household requirements on the other. It is a very significant part of the situation, therefore, that at this world's crisis the two have become absolutely essential to each other. It is no slight undertaking to make this synthesis, which is probably the most compelling challenge which has been made upon women's constructive powers for centuries. They must exert all their human affection and all their clarity of mind in order to make the great moral adjustment which the situation demands.

The various studies which thousands of club women thruout the country have been carrying on for so many years in their effort better to comprehend the world in which we live, will bring to their aid at this time of crisis an understanding of woman's traditional relation to food, of her old obligation to nurture the world. We may be able thus to lift the challenge of the present moment into its historic setting.

Back of history itself are innumerable myths dealing with the Spirits of the Corn, who are always feminine and are usually represented by a Corn Mother and her daughter, vaguely corresponding to the Greek Demeter, the always-fostering Earth and her child Persephone, the changing seasons. It is said that relics of the Corn Mother and the Corn Maiden are found in nearly all the harvest fields of the world, with very curious old customs.

Perhaps those club women who have cared most for history and the study of early social customs will be the first to realize that these myths centering about the Corn Mother but dimly foreshadowed what careful scientific researches have later verified and developt. Students of primitive

society believe that women were the first agriculturists and were for a long time the only inventors and developers of its processes. The men of the tribe did little for cultivating the soil beyond clearing the space and sometimes surrounding it by a rough protection.

Those club women who have persistently kept up a study class in such stiff subjects as comparative religions and philosophy know how often a widespread myth has its counterpart in the world of morals. This was certainly true of the belief in the "fostering mother." Students in the origin of social customs contend that the gradual change from the wasteful manner of nomadic life to a settled and much more economic mode of existence may be fairly attributed to these primitive agricultural women. The desire to grow food for her children led to a fixt abode and a real home from which our domestic morality and customs are supposed to have originated.

In these dark years, so destructive of the old codes, the nations, forst back to their tribal function of producing and conserving food, are developing a new concern for the feeding of their peoples. All food supplies have long been collected and distributed thru the utilization of the commercial motive. At the present moment, however, just as the British government has undertaken the responsibility of providing the British Isles with imported food, so other belligerent and neutral nations have been obliged to pursue the same course in order to avert starvation. Commercial competition has been suppresst, not in response to any theory, but because it cannot be trusted to feed the feeble and helpless. There is no doubt that even after peace is declared the results of starvation, arising from the world's shortage of food, will compel these governments to continue and even extend their purchasing in other lands. But such a state of affairs will itself indicate a new order—the substitution of the social-utility motive for that of commercial gain. In international affairs the nations have still dealt almost exclusively with political and commercial affairs considered as matters of "rights"; consequently they have never been humanized in their relations to each other as they have been in their internal affairs.

It is quite understandable that there was no place for woman and her possible contribution in these international relationships; they were indeed not "woman's sphere." But is it not quite possible that, as women entered into city politics when clean milk and sanitary housing became matters for municipal legislation, as they consulted state officials when the premature labor of children and the tuberculosis death-rate became factors in a political campaign, so they may normally be concerned with international affairs when these are dealing with such human and poignant matters as food for the starving and the rescue of women and children from annihilation?

The instinct to feed those with whom we have made alliances certainly bears an analogy to those first interchanges between tribe and tribe when a shortage of food became the humble beginning of exchange. At the present moment the allied nations are collecting and conserving a common food

supply, and each nation is facing the necessity of making certain concessions to the common good that the threat of famine for all may be averted. A new internationalism is being establisht day by day; the making of a more reasonable world-order, so cogently urged by the President of the United States, is to some extent already under way, the war itself forming its matrix. An English economist has recently pointed out that in Europe generally the war has thus far thrown the customs tariffs flat. Are they perhaps disappearing under this onslaught of energized pity for world-wide needs? And is a motive power, new in the relations between nations, being evolved in response to hunger and love, as the earlier domestic ethics had been?

It is possible that the more sophisticated questions of national grouping and territorial control will gradually adjust themselves if the paramount human question of food for the hungry be fearlessly and drastically treated upon an international basis. The League of Nations, destined to end wars, upon which the whole world, led by President Wilson, is fastening its hopes, may be founded, not upon broken bits of international law, but upon ministrations to primitive human needs. The League would then be organized *de facto* as all the really stable political institutions in the world have been.

In this great undertaking women may bear a valiant part if they but stretch their minds to comprehend what it means in this world-crisis to produce food more abundantly and to conserve it with wisdom.

THE UNITED STATES BOYS' WORKING RESERVE

H. W. WELLS, ASSOCIATE NATIONAL DIRECTOR, UNITED STATES BOYS' WORKING RESERVE OF THE UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, WASHINGTON, D.C.

Will everyone in this audience be good enough to take pencil and paper and to write down these words: United States Boys' Working Reserve, Employment Service, Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. When you reach your homes please be good enough to transfer these words to a stampt envelope, inclose your name and address within the envelope, and mail it. The national office of the Reserve will immediately respond by sending you information concerning the United States Boys' Working Reserve and will tell you of what vital importance both to itself and to you your hearty cooperation with the Reserve must necessarily prove to be.

The United States Boys' Working Reserve is the one organization establisht by the federal government for the mobilization of boys sixteen years of age and over, and under twenty-one years of age, for work, chiefly in food production, but also in the shops that are manufacturing war-essential material. It is organized in three units: the Agricultural Unit, by far the most important of the three; the Industrial Unit; and the Vocational Unit.

Its program is very simple and involves the schools and their cooperation at every step of the way. It goes directly and first of all to the high schools of the country. As you well know, there are in the high schools of the United States approximately 500,000 boys who are sixteen years of age and over. In every school it appoints an enrolling officer, whose business it is to bring to the attention of every boy of Reserve age in that particular school the claims of the Reserve upon his services, and the actual enrolment of boys into the Reserve.

The second item in its program is to train the boys enrolled. Various state divisions of the Reserve have issued special pamphlets upon the elements of farm practice and have, thru cooperation with school authority, introduced them into the school curriculum. These courses in school have been supplemented by demonstration work upon farms in the neighborhood of high schools and have been undertaken chiefly upon Saturdays, morning or afternoon, or both.

The third item in its program is the inspection of working-places—of shops and of farms—in order that the living and working conditions of boys employed shall conform to a sufficient and decent standard set up by the Reserve.

The fourth item in its program is the supervision of boys enrolled and at work.

Manifestly the schools are a vital factor in the success of the Reserve, first to enrol, next to train, and last to supervise the boys employed.

Hitherto in our work the schools have been of vital necessity to our progress. The happy time has come when the United States Boys' Working Reserve is now a vital necessity to the efficiency of the schools. Official figures that report school mortality incident to the war are sporadic and not wholly satisfactory. Massachusetts reports for the two-year period just past an actual decrease in her school enrolment of 4 per cent. As her expected increase in enrolment is 7 per cent, there has been, it would seem, a decrease of 18 per cent in the enrolment that she had a right to expect for the two-year period. New Jersey reports a like decrease, upon the same basis of reckoning, of $11\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Statistics gathered from some of the great schools of populous centers like Newark, N.J., and Philadelphia, Pa., show a decrease of approximately 30 per cent from the normal expected enrolment. For those boys who have already left school and have gone to work there must be provided some kind of training that will continue their preparation for manhood and citizenship. The Department of Labor, through the United States Boys' Working Reserve, proposes to place into every one of its employment offices of the Employment Service, a representative of the United States Boys' Working Reserve to whom all applicants of Reserve age shall be referred for disposition. Thru the Reserve representatives in the various employment offices reference of boys who apply at the office can be made to those school men and school forces who will undertake

their continued instruction. As regards other thousands of boys who have been attending school up to the current month and are now about to enter industry, the employment offices, thru Reserve representatives, will be enabled to control in a measure the drift from school to shop and mill and will be instrumental in turning large numbers of boys back to their schools where they should rightly be.

WAR-MODIFIED EDUCATION, THE TEACHERS, AND THE SCHOOLS

WALTER R. SIDERS, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, POCATELLO, IDAHO

The school is an institution establisht by the state for the purpose of training its people to the standards of its citizenship. If the state were static the school could become a perfected institution with its procedure exactly determined and its purposes perfectly defined. Because the social elements of a state are ever substituting new ideals for old, because of the pressure of events, natural and man-made, within and without the state, a nation is a progression, and like the kaleidoscope ever presents a new combination of its elements. Since the school is but a phase of this social movement, it must recognize its obligations to keep abreast with national changes; it must so change and adapt itself as to meet the new ends demanded.

Our duty is to study conditions as they exist in the state. Unquestionably our schools face a crisis. We are confronted with the solution of many new problems, among which may be enumerated:

1. The threatened shortage of teachers—how to increase the supply and how to retain those in service.

2. The equalization of educational opportunity to all the children of the nation, rural as well as urban, poor as well as rich. For the future depends upon what these citizens shall be.

3. The preservation of health and the conservation of national vitality. As a corollary, the study of recreation to the end that it may become a wise use of leisure time.

4. The Americanization of our foreign element. We have recruited regiments demanding interpreters dealing with six different languages.

5. The education of the illiterate, of whom we have five and one-half millions, or a ratio of one in every twenty.

6. The continuation of educational opportunity to adults who have not had the opportunity or the desire for education in their youth, for the purpose of giving new types of education not afforded in their past.

7. The provision for vocational training, to the end that all may be economically independent, not alone for their own well-being, but that they may not become a burden to the rest of the people.

8. Training for patriotism and citizenship.

The new era causes us to look ahead. We are preparing for tomorrow as well as for today. We find:

1. That new vocations are opening up, demanding new training.

2. That our international commerce and citizenship will create a demand for the teaching of several modern languages.

3. Ourselves thrown upon our own resources and compelled to develop our chemistry and applied science to the degree which will answer our crisis.

4. Ourselves citizens of the world. The new social order and the consequent new civic problems will open new fields for study.

5. In short, that we are confronted with an amazing perplexity of unsolved problems whose solutions will tax our best efforts and demand untiring energy.

I trust that it is not expected that this discussion will offer an answer to these problems, but that it shall have discharged its duty if it points out a method of solution.

It will be readily granted that the first schools were organized to meet definite demands existing in the society of their inception. From age to age new demands have been recognized and incorporated, but much that was obsolete has been retained.

The method proposed is this: Draw a parallel between the school as it is and the school as it would be were the state to create it anew at the present time. Let us put out of our minds for the moment the school as it is. Let us forget that such an institution exists or ever has existed. Now if we draw up an institution for the purposes of citizenship, what will be its ends and aims? What curricula will answer to these ends and aims? What educational procedure will accomplish these desired results?

With this plan formulated, let us set it in parallel with our present system, and proceed to analysis, comparison, and substitution, "proving all things and holding fast to that which is good." No pretension is made that this method is new, that it is infallible, or that other methods will not prove better. But it is a working scheme which any educator who is a student of life can use.

Teachers must throw themselves into the current of national and local life. We live too much unto ourselves. A larger understanding is needed. Appreciation will come from an enlarged outlook, which outlook will enable us to serve our schools more effectually and to bring the people to a realization that the teacher is worthy of a reward as adequate, and of a social recognition as desirable, as that of any other profession. Teachers who are unwilling to read the signs of the times may expect to read the handwriting on the wall.

Let us leave our academic aloofness. Let us be not only *in* the world, but *of* it. Thus will we come to understand the new order and become the apostles of the new era, fulfilling the purposes which the nation expects of us. Thus may we play our part in the discovery of the new America.

There are those who pretend to despise the statement that coming events cast their shadows before. Thoughtful men have long seen this present world-struggle. As long as there was room in this world for men to flee from a distasteful social system—from political, religious, and economic conditions not suitable to working out the destinies desired and to developing the peculiar genius of those protesting against things as they were—that long could conflict be avoided. Our prophetic ones saw the time when the world would be settled *up*, when the world must settle *down*, when men of diametric ideas must *face* instead of *fleeing* from each other, when the struggle would come to determine which system of social order would endure. We may take this as an example of how we must study our social forces to adapt our education to meet succeeding events.

Many organizations are at this time using the schools as agencies —for governmental war work and as agencies for social and civic reform. Eighty-seven organizations desiring to use the schools have been reported. We have given and will continue to give to all governmental requests the right of way. Other requests we shall use if they serve school ends and aims. These numerous demands are signs of the times. It is well to determine if they represent a deep-seated need of the people or the momentary sentiment of a small group.

The government has made so many appeals to the people and they have responded so loyally that we wonder if an appeal for teachers as a patriotic duty would not be heard. There are many persons of education and refinement who have the means and the leisure to give themselves to the work of a teacher. Cannot such be brought into service? The teachers of America never had such an opportunity for service as now. Let us take the aims and objects of our epoch-making Commission on National Emergency to the public, let us seriously campaign for the accomplishment of these objects. Let us make the splendid report of the Committee on Resolutions our platform and strive to carry every one of its planks over the top. Let us enlist the teachers of America in our National Education Association, that we may present a united front in our educational requests.

May our lives throb with the pulse of the nation, may we catch the spirit of the new movement, may our hearts be on fire with zeal for our country and the welfare of our people, may we discover the new America, and may God grant us a tongue of flame from his altar that we may teach with the fervor and the enthusiasm which the times demand.

WAR-MODIFIED EDUCATION AND ILLITERACY

CORA WILSON STEWART, PRESIDENT, KENTUCKY ILLITERACY COMMISSION, FRANKFORT, KY.

When I think of the five and a half million illiterates in this country, when I think of the skepticism of some school people as to the ability of these illiterates to learn, and when I think of our hesitancy and our long

delay in coming to their relief, I feel as Thomas Jefferson must have felt when he, himself a slaveholder, contemplated the institution of slavery and said, "I tremble when I remember that God is just!"

Among our five and a half million illiterates, 1,600,000 are foreign born. The remainder, nearly 4,000,000 in number, are native born. For the foreign born to be ignorant of our government, our laws, and our traditions is deplorable indeed, but for the native born to be ignorant of them is not only a menace but a disgrace. We are attempting to Americanize foreigners, an excellent thing to do, but let us not forget to Americanize the people of the Abraham Lincoln and Booker T. Washington type.

It is no longer a question of the right or the need of the illiterates in this country to enlightenment. It is not now a question of their joy in book and pen, but it is a question of national welfare, of bringing five and a half million more people speedily into intelligent sympathy with our war aims and enlisting their support.

This is a war in which international law, justice, human rights, and even common decency have been cast to the four winds by the enemy. To none of these have we any appeal. There is but one thing that will win this war—and that thing may be exprest in just one word. That word is *power*. Would it not then be the part of wisdom for the leaders of this country first to determine the source of power and then speedily to increase it? Had it not been said and demonstrated countless times thru the ages that "knowledge is power," it is being demonstrated at this time, in this very hour, when we behold the nation which has the lowest percentage of illiteracy holding the world at bay, and the one of our Allies which has the highest percentage broken down, disrupted, unable to enjoy her long-coveted and hardly won liberty and unable, we fear, to sustain a democracy now that she has one. The nations to which I refer are Germany, with only five out of every thousand of her population illiterate, and Russia, with six hundred and ninety out of every thousand unable to read and write.

What is the relation of the five and a half million illiterates in this country to the war, or rather what ought their relation to be? The government expects of them intelligent cooperation. Ignorance cannot cooperate. The entire propaganda to arouse the people to intelligent, sympathetic cooperation is a printed propaganda, and the very first step toward intelligent response is a written subscription or pledge.

The illiterates are the people who do not, as a rule, attend public meetings. Our speakers, whether four-minute men or forty-minute men, have mist them. Only two methods of enlightening them, then, may be considered. One would be to send conversationalists among them to tell them just what the war means and what the government expects them to do. Russia tried this. Returned soldiers went from village to village, talking, talking, talking, to the people. It was too slow. It has not succeeded. There is just one other plan, and that is to teach the people to read and

write, ther so to simplify the printed propaganda that they may read it, or better, to let them read and write the propaganda while learning. If the constructive forces of this country do not enlighten them some organization like the I.W.W. may get them in its pernicious grasp. In this illiterate mass—

> There is a poor blind Samson in this land,
> Shorn of his strength and bound with bands of steel,
> Who may in some grim revel raise his hands
> And shake the pillars of the commonweal.

When five millions of men in this country have gone to defend our liberties on foreign soil, with a corresponding number of nurses, doctors, engineers, and mechanics, the conditions of life will become so altered, the need of sustaining our industries and supporting those at the front, our brave defenders, but non-producers, will be so great as to demand the efficient service of every man, woman, and child in this country. Every illiterate, whether twenty or thirty years of age, or fifty or sixty, must be educated and made available to take the places vacated by those who have gone to the front.

We owe something to the illiterate mothers of this country, whose sons have been drafted by the government and sent three thousand miles away from home to defend the flag. We owe it to them to teach them enough to enable them to read letters from those absent sons and to write letters to them, if nothing more.

We owe something—yes, everything—to the boys who have gone to give their lives for our native land. War has turned on the searchlight, like lightning's lurid glare, and has revealed conditions in education, as well as in other lines, that call for immediate remedy. Too clearly do we see the need of a relief for the illiterates when the registration cards of this country show 700,000 young men registered by mark.

When around the council table after the war they examine the workings of a democracy and an autocracy and seek to know what each has wrought among the people, one of the first things that the representatives gathered there will doubtless ask will be this question: "What are the educational benefits and status of each?" I believe that around that table the good of the peoples of the earth will be the one thing considered. Autocracy and democracy will clash there with argument as they are clashing now with sword. Democracy will charge autocracy with militarism, with despotism, cruelty, injustice, and intrigue. Autocracy will charge us with many things. May she not have the satisfaction, in that hour, of saying that we have kept five and a half million people in ignorance!

When after the war the world looks to America for leadership, when Russia comes to study our educational conditions, shall she find hope for her millions of illiterate peasants or shall she find school doors closed to men and women and illiterates condemned to everlasting ignorance? When

Italy comes to study our institutions, shall she find a remedy for the illiteracy of her southern peninsula? Mexico will look to us for an example. Shall she catch the fire from Texas and New Mexico to educate her illiterate peons? Porto Rico, Hawaii, the islands of the sea will look to this nation for their ideal of democracy. Shall they find a democracy founded on the sinking sand of the intelligence of part of the people, or founded on the solid rock of the enlightenment of all?

CHARACTER EDUCATION

MILTON FAIRCHILD, NATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR MORAL INSTRUCTION, WASHINGTON, D.C.

These distressing times call for constructive thinking rather than for fault-finding. No matter what the neglects of the past have been, the school must now plan to furnish the education which the children of the United States, living in these modern times, really need. The basis of the life-career for each child is character, interpreted in a broad sense, and this basis must be furnisht by education. I like the term "character education" much better than "moral education," because it is not subject to misunderstandings and is a broader term. The term "character education" suggests and implies the unfolding of the child's better self by the processes of growth and under the stimulation and guidance of the teacher. The purpose of character education should be the growth of the child out of its weaknesses and crudities and superficialities of character into strength, depth, breadth, and harmony of character.

The scope of character education is indicated by the following list of fields of thought as subdivisions of the general, inclusive term: (1) instruction (formal and informal) in the wisdom of human moral experience; (2) formation of opinions as to morality on the part of children themselves; (3) the development of motives for right conduct; (4) conduct-resolves by children; (5) training (teacher and self-training) in habits of right conduct. This is undiscovered territory. Not a human being living knows much about character education. We have various theories as to how results in character development can be secured; there have been "working hypotheses" announst as supported by modern thought in the human sciences, but no one has gone thru the scientific process by which these theories and hypotheses are verified and proved to produce results.

And yet the present emergency in the life of the nation necessitates an improvement in this phase of education, and the demand will surely be made that ways and means be provided in the public schools for producing the strength, refinement, and righteousness of character which are needed among the masses of the people, both rich and poor, of a republic. The United States of America has become a world-power and a leader in

international politics. This fact brings to us greatly increast responsibilities as a nation. In a republic-democracy the purposes and ambitions of the masses of the people are the purposes and ambitions of the government. We are arriving at a time when the mass-judgments of our people will be influentially exprest. The leadership and control of the "intellectuals" will be challenged, in matters of government, industry, finance, social distinctions, and education, by the masses on the basis of the purposes in life and the ambitions which have control over the masses. We shall not be able to get the nation, as an organization of millions of people, to bear these new responsibilities successfully unless we succeed in developing, as an expression of the interest and the right which the nation has in the character development of its children, much more influential methods of character education in the public schools.

You will recall that at the Detroit meeting of the Department of Superintendence an award of $5000 was offered for the best children's code of morals. A certain business man, who does not wish to be under the suspicion of seeking personal glory and therefore insists on withholding his name, offered that $5000. He believes that the character education of all the children of the Republic is a necessity as a guaranty of permanent and progressive life on the part of the nation. Each state in the Union appointed thru its state superintendent at least one "code writer" in that "National $5000 Morality Codes Competition," and more populous states appointed several. There were seventy code writers, and they workt for one year, with consultation as the chief principle of their work. Probably ten thousand people took part in deciding for these code writers what moral ideas ought to be inculcated in the minds of our nation's children. Fifty-two succeeded in completing morality codes in this competition, and others will write later. The award was made by three judges—Professor George Trumbull Ladd, of Yale University, chairman; Justice Mahlon Pitney, of the Supreme Court of the United States; and Mrs. Phillip North Moore, president of the National Council of Women—to a code written by Professor Wm. J. Hutchins, of Ohio. There are other codes almost if not quite as good as the Hutchins code. The process of revision before publication has been started, and each author will submit his code to public criticism during this period of revision. The final result will be a body of codes on which we educators can rely as a guide to the content of moral instruction and to the conduct which it is right for the children of our nation to be brought up to fulfil.

In the process of developing this morality-codes competition the business-man "donor" discovered that the educators were in doubt as to methods of character education, and therefore he offered, again thru the National Institution for Moral Instruction, an award of $20,000 for the best method of character education in public schools. This is by far the largest award ever offered in education and signifies the earnestness of the

appeal from the general public that the schools develop their procedure in character education into effectiveness for the sake of the nation of the future. There will be an interstate competition between teams of nine research collaborators, one team in each state, and the award will be divided, $4000 to the chairman and $2000 to each of the collaborators of the winning team.

As a result of this group thinking we shall have forty-eight great plans for character education. All these plans will be made available to the state, city, county, and town superintendents thruout the nation, and to all who as students of education wish to make a special investigation of this field.

After the specifications for the year's research for the best methods of character education in public schools had been completed, the generosity and determination of the donor of these enormous awards was further exprest in an offer to pay the expenses of the preparation of a special library of extracts from the best writers on education, which should facilitate the work of these groups of collaborators by giving them a good start. The "Donor's Library on Character Education" is nearing completion under the editorship of Professor Harris L. Latham and President Charles McKenney. It will be composed of about three volumes of extracts on character education. One set will be given to the group of collaborators in each state for use during the research year. Then in each state the library will go to the office of the state superintendent, to be lent to superintendent and teachers as they may have need. The chief and immediate purpose of the library is to help the research collaborators discover the best possible ways and means for character education in the public schools.

After these forty-eight great plans for character education in public schools have been submitted they will be studied, and certain verifying experiments will be made by qualified specialists. These will be made under normal public-school conditions and will be conducted for the sake of putting to the test the plans which seem likely to produce the best results. The recommendations which will come finally to the superintendents and to students of education will be worthy of serious consideration because they will have been arrived at by true scientific processes. The National Institution for Moral Instruction stands for cooperation in research among advanst students in the field of character education, in order that the practical, verified wisdom of educators may be accumulated as the basis for improvements in the service which schools render the children of the nation in their character development. Your cooperation is most heartily desired in these undertakings.

WAR-MODIFIED EDUCATION AND THE RISE OF THE COMMON PEOPLE THRU IT

A. E. WINSHIP, "JOURNAL OF EDUCATION," BOSTON, MASS.

This world-war is modifying everything and everyone in America. Nothing will ever be as it has been, and no one will ever again be as he has been.

The war is modifying us financially, industrially, commercially, morally, patriotically, politically, religiously, and educationally. And all the modification is for the uplift of the common people, for the toning up of the common people.

I was privileged to be present recently at the conference of 122 coal operators of West Virginia and Mr. Lawson, who represented Dr. Garfield and President Wilson.

Kendall White made the great address of the occasion. He is the lawyer for the Standard Oil Company, which is supposed to mean that he is one of the big lawyers of West Virginia. He devoted himself to an attempt to impress upon those coal operators that this is a war of the common people, by the common people, and for the common people. He called attention to the fact that Lloyd George represents the common people of England, and that more and more President Wilson is representing the common people of the United States. He said: "It is not a theory, but a condition, and you must face it squarely. You should adjust all the conditions of your mines—working and living conditions—never forgetting that you will soon have to give a report on your stewardship."

I have never heard a speech like that from such a man as Kendall White. I have read something closely akin to that from Charles M. Schwab.

Democracy is of and by and for the common people just as autocracy is for aristocracy. When we make the world safe for democracy we make it a common-people's world.

The modification of this war is greater than we can even imagine. Take the religious modification, for instance. We have not realized how many of us had our highest test of religious love by devilish hate of other religions. Who can conceive of the American Y.M.C.A. offering its hut to the Knights of Columbus for the celebration of mass and administering of the communion? And when the Knights of Columbus have their hut ready, they in turn invite their Israelitist "brethren" to administer to their Jewish worshipers in a Roman Catholic "temple." And on that ever-memorable day in April, 1917, when the United States Senate voted us into the world-war, and a Democrat from the Gulf pledged a consecrated South to this war, and a rock-ribbed Republican from Massachusetts solemnly dedicated his party and his state to the arming of this war, and a senator from New York spoke for the devotion of his state and of his people, a reverend hush fell upon the reverend senators as the hour closed

and one of their number rose and in a wonderful prayer represented Baptists and Methodists, Unitarians and Episcopalians, Catholics and Jews, before the throne of God. Probably the most remarkable fact that can be recorded of American Christians is the fact that that prayer was offered by Senator Reed Smoot, of Utah.

In theory public education is democratic in the forming, but as a matter of fact it has always been more aristocratic than democratic. All this is changing. At a summer normal school in San Diego, Calif., the president and every teacher devoted their evenings for five weeks to teaching one hundred draftees from Chicago in Camp Kearney to read and write and to learn an inconceivable number of other things valuable to them as men "over there." That normal-school faculty forgot the traditional superstition of the normal school, and without a course of study, without a common method, without notebooks or diagrams, did four years' work in five weeks with many of those men.

Finally we are war modified politically. I wish to offer myself as a living example of a war-modified politician. I am a Republican of Republicans. I was born that way and have never sold my birthright. I have never been a candidate for a salaried office, appointive or elective. I have done my bit by voice and purse in every campaign since I was twenty-one years of age. I have been in five of the last six Republican Conventions. I did what I could in the presidential campaigns of 1912 and 1916 and I was not on the winning side. In this hour of our nation's and the world's crisis I am thankful that American voters were wiser than I, that the man whom the Lord seems to have raised up for this hour is the commander in chief of the Armies and Navies of the United States and the world's leader in thought and action in making the world safe for democracy.

THE REBUILDING OF CIVILIZATION THRU THE SCHOOLS

KATHERINE DEVEREUX BLAKE, NEW YORK, N.Y.

Teachers of America—you are the most wonderful audience in the world, for you hold the shining future in your hands, and as you mold it, so shall it be, ignoble or great. Therefore I feel very humble as I stand before you. How shall I be able to give you the inspiration that you need to carry you thru the year you face? You have just finisht the hardest school year you have ever gone thru, a year in which you have served with splendid self-sacrifice, doing war work of all kinds after your school duties were done. The year to come will be even more difficult. Your war work will be more strenuous and your school work more arduous, because more children will be undernourisht, and it is well-nigh impossible to teach a hungry child. Let me beg you, as your first duty to the state, to try to secure adequate

food for our helpless little ones, so that the boys and girls of today may be vigorous in spite of the pinch of war.

You face the revision of your course of study in the light of the fires that burn over there. How shall you be guided in these changes? Dr. Robert Morris has wisely said, "Tradition is the greatest of guides for mean minds, but the meanest of guides for great minds." So let us sweep tradition aside and face the facts of life. The German ideals in education, the subordination of the individual and mass teaching must go. The lurid fires of over there have burned into our consciousness the terrific necessity for scientific knowledge. In this young century we are preparing for strange new conditions after the war, and science must be our guide. We are building for the new world that will rise phoenix-like from the ashes of the old.

At a certain stage in the old-fashioned melodrama the wicked woman of the play stole from behind a curtain and in a staccato whisper exclaimed to the villain, "Hist: We are discovered! All is lost." On the world-stage of today, instead of this play, the heroine comes exultantly down center, waving the flag, shouting to the hero, "Hurrah! We are discovered! All is won!" And behold, they are teachers, and America has discovered the schools. Now as never before is there hope of real democracy.

Let us take as our war cry, "Rally round the schools!" for there the greatest battle of all is being fought, the battle against ignorance, prejudice, poverty, and vice. We teachers have taken the place of the grandmother who told old folk stories to the children, of the mother who taught them to read, of the romp leader who led the old battles between town and gown, of the master who made a mystery of his trade and permitted only his apprentices to practice it. Each year has seen the circle of our activities widen, until now we are expected to prepare our pupils for life!

Then it is for us to keep our eyes fixt on the future. When the elementary-school child of today is grown he will face peace conditions, and those conditions must be made as glorious to him as the heroism of today, or we shall be training for another and more terrible war. So let us shout together, "Rally round the school!" and stop worrying about split infinitives, cease talking pedaguese, lift our eyes from grammar and method books, and go out into the world beyond our classroom door, take part in the scrimmage, taste the dust of it, and help mold it so that it may in the future be fit for our pupils, even as we are fitting them for it.

Do not let us make the mistakes of other countries. Let us study their plans only in order to improve on them and cure our own defects. Let us bow no longer to the dominance of the classical college, nodding in its mediaeval cloisters. Let us demand living conditions for our children and a living wage for ourselves.

And can we do this? Yes! For America has discovered the schools, and the schoolmaster and schoolmistress are coming into their own.

Women vote in many states and before long will vote all over this country. Teaching is no longer a disfranchised profession. We have a teacher in the White House, and he is teaching the whole world to listen to principles of democracy and justice. A teacher is governor of Pennsylvania. Teachers are officering our Army and in many places are leading in our legislative assemblies. We can do anything we wish if we work together.

To give you the inspiration needed for the difficult work before you I bring you messages from three great men. The first is Charles P. Steinmetz, the world-famous scientist who is at the head of the immense General Electrical Works in Schenectady, N.Y. He said in a recent interview, "Eight hours a day is too long, far too long, for a human being to tend a machine. . . . . The day's work should be reduced to four hours. Men could stand that much drudgery and have initiative enough left to enable them to take up interesting occupations. Society, instead of being impoverisht by the shorter work day, would be enricht by all the greater accomplishments these men would undertake."

This is not an I.W.W. leader speaking, but the high-salaried head of the largest electrical establishment in the world, a man whose brains all the world respects, and he adds, "The most distasteful work of all should receive the greatest rewards and the highest honors. Why should I be honored more or paid more than the ditch digger? Society could worry along for some time without its engineers, but it couldn't get along without its laborers."

The next message is one that all teachers should constantly repeat to school boards. It comes from Edward Filene, the head of the remarkable department store in Boston. He said in his testimony before the Committee on the District of Columbia of the House of Representatives, when they were considering the minimum-wage bill for women and children, "There is nothing so costly as cheap help." "Cheap wages make cheap standards, and the danger is that with all the details of the supervision necessary with cheap wages we will be satisfied with cheap standards." He said further that an underpaid employe will not have strength or desire to study very much in order to put more intelligence into the work. This is just as true of teachers as of department-store employes.

Drive these facts home! The last message is from Charles M. Schwab, the man who is making ships faster than they ever were made before. He says, "In the very near future we must look to the worker for a solution of the great economic questions now being considered. I am not one to carelessly turn over my belongings for the uplift of the nation, but I am one who has come to a belief that the worker will rule, and the sooner we realize this the better it will be for our country and the world at large."

Epitomized these messages run, *Ere long Labor will rule, and with that rule will come the four-hour day and fair wages.* We must train our children

of today to be ready for the fairer day of tomorrow. The world is in our hands to make or mar, and the power is ours if we will use it.

I have a dream that some day will be realized. Already the rich have pointed the way, for their children go to city schools in winter and to farm or camp in summer. Why should the little children of the men and women who are doing honest work in the lonely places of this great country, the lighthouse keepers, the lumbermen in far-away mountains, the ranchmen in the desert struggling with dry farming, why should they be robbed of education, tho they have the clear air and the sky and nature all around them? Why should the children of our slums be robbed of all that nature can teach them?

Did you ever stop to wonder what sort of a generation is growing up in our city slums, knowing only bricks and stones, the straight lines and right angles of the sordid streets, and the fierce competition of city trade? "All men are born free and equal." It is for you and me to make the Declaration of Independence true.

Some day when the autumn winds sweep down from the hills all the children from all the lonely places will come with them to the great cities, there to live in barracks and study in city schools, and see museums, and factories, and shops, and crowded streets; and then when the soft spring winds wake the snowdrop and the crocus, and it is time to sow for the summer harvest, then all the children of the city shall go forth to farm and mountain, there to camp and study nature thru all the long summer days.

Think what it would mean to America to have citizens trained like that—who should know city and country, and North and South, aye, and East and West, and best of all should know themselves, and what work they are best fitted for. Some day my dream will come true. The power to make it quickly true lies in your hands. *I leave my dream with you to fulfil.*

THRIFT AND NATIONAL SERVICE

FRANK A. VANDERLIP, CHAIRMAN, NATIONAL WAR SAVINGS COMMITTEE, WASHINGTON, D.C.

I have come to ask you to wake up to your responsibilities. You are teachers and it is your duty to draw out the best that is in the pupils under your care. I wonder sometimes if the quality of imagination has been sufficiently drawn out. We are a rather unimaginative people, I take it. Had we imagination in degree great enough to visualize for ourselves what the military situation is, how much there is to be done, how enormously pressing is the need that we do this, there would be no need for Liberty Loan campaigns and Thrift Stamp drives to help us fight it thru.

Fighting it thru is going to be a great job. It is going to be a greater job than many of us imagine. You say that America has always been

victorious, and that you are confident that right will triumph over might, and then you settle into the self-satisfied attitude that the war is as good as won. But you teachers, I know, have read your histories too closely to think that right always triumphs over might.

There has been a great deal of a march toward triumph, and we have not made the march. Do people fully appreciate what Germany has done, how fearfully near it has been to victory, how alarmingly near this war has been to a conclusion? In the last few months we have seen the consolidation of Middle Europe from north to south almost to the extent Berlin had hoped for. We have seen the monstrous good fortune of Germany in having Russia lie down before her, releasing men, releasing soldiers, releasing supplies, and giving food. Within fewer months we have seen the Western Front stiffened, we have seen it struck, we have seen it sent back mile after mile until one more great push would send it within bombarding range of Paris. We have seen, we are seeing today, the evacuation of Paris. One million four hundred thousand people have left Paris. Paris today is in danger.

We can say that Germany has been able to do much of this with the recognition of one little fact of psychology. She has seen that the constant crouching in trenches, the normal defensive form of warfare, is not calculated to fit men for offensive action, and she has used this knowledge by creating her shock troops—men who never go into the trenches, but who are trained with enormous care far behind the lines.

And in American too we can find some truths that this whole situation makes plain to even the most unthinking. We appropriated $19,000,000,000 last year. We did not spend it. We spent only about two-thirds of it. Why? Well, really, because you got in the way. You askt for too many things. Our whole people got in the way with their demands for this thing and that thing, tho it must have been plain to them that the government wanted these things.

We have in uniform in the Army and Navy, or will have before the end of summer, 4,500,000 men. This means that behind this Army and Navy we must have 18,000,000 workers devoting themselves entirely to the war.

Can we go on buying as we were buying, spending money as we were spending it, knowing that means demands on man power? Can we do this and still supply half of our total workers to war work? Let us take the bandage off our eyes and see things nationally.

The government's problem is not to raise money. It is to spend it. There will be no shortage of money; there is a shortage of mechanical equipment. Extravagance is a home made bomb, and it explodes every time in the trenches.

You say that to eliminate luxuries shall upset business. Have no fear. No matter how much we may raise our voices, there still will be a tremendous

indulgence in luxuries. Anyone, consider this: Germany is determined to bring this war to a conclusion this summer. Germany won't wait, and therefore we can't. It has ceast to be a matter of what will be best for business; it is now a matter of what will be best for the war. Luxuries are not.

War is a current effort and must be paid for in current savings. The essence of the whole thing is in getting gunfire in France, and current effort is doing that. With unified effort we shall win the war, but we must have unified savings with which to do it. And it must be the savings of rich and poor alike; of rich more than of poor.

THE NATIONAL EMERGENCY IN EDUCATION

GEORGE D. STRAYER, CHAIRMAN, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION COMMISSION ON THE EMERGENCY IN EDUCATION, NEW YORK, N.Y.

Universal conscription in education is the only sensible method of perpetuating democracy, just as universal military conscription is the only democratic method of raising an army. We were patriotic enough to accept military conscription. We must be intelligent enough to accept universal conscription in education. The foundations of democracy are based upon universal intelligence. Therefore democracy must see to it that not only its children but its adults are literate, efficient, intelligent, and patriotic.

We read more newspapers, magazines, and books per capita than does any other nation. We have a larger percentage of our population between fourteen and eighteen years of age in school than has any other country in the world. We have invested large sums of money in our schools, and have increast steadily the number of days of schooling per unit of our population. In spite of these and other conspicuous successes, the war emergency has brought to us a realization of our failure to provide a system of education which guarantees an enduring democracy.

Our bountiful natural resources have tempted us to be wasteful. We have not taught nor practist thrift. We have failed to provide for the complete Americanization of foreign immigrants. We have tolerated the formation and continuation of racial and language groups with ideals and practices inimical to our free institutions. We have not provided adequately trained nor adequately paid teachers in sufficient numbers to train our children. More than five million children receive their training from unprepared child teachers in their teens.

We have failed to recognize the need of preparing for the present world-emergency. We have been unwilling to accept the kinds of discipline and control necessary for a people which is to defend its own freedom and to fight for the establishment of world-democracy.

The present emergency demands that we provide for the development of a more adequate system of public education. The world-struggle between autocracy and democracy has only begun. The final verdict may rest with our children or our children's children.

We must immediately recognize the necessity for a common language and a common inheritance of democratic ideas and ideals. All boys and girls living in America, whatever their ancestry, must be taught in the English tongue. Men and women who would achieve citizenship must be required not only to speak and to read English but also to show that they understand and subscribe *unreservedly* to the principles and ideals of democratic government.

For all children and for adult immigrants training must be provided which stresses the highest ideals and best practices of our community and of our national life. Every schoolhouse must be a community center of true democracy.

We may no longer delude ourselves with respect to the adequacy of an education which ends at fourteen. Compulsory education amounting *to half-time work must be required of all between fourteen and sixteen*, and a minimum of eight hours a week during working hours must be required from sixteen to eighteen years of age.

Technical training and efficiency must be accompanied by a still higher degree of physical efficiency, by a better understanding of our institutions and ideals, by more adequate preparation for the use of leisure, and by participation in activities which develop good citizenship.

We must recognize the necessity for more adequate training for teachers and the corresponding obligation for greatly increast salaries for teachers in order that the *choicest of our youth may see in teaching not only an opportunity for service* but also *the possibility for a career comparable to that* enjoyed by those who enter the more favored professions.

We will no longer be satisfied with medical inspection which discovers and records defects. We must rather seek the highest possible type of physical efficiency, thru the removal of remedial defects, by providing the conditions necessary for normal physical development and by inculcating an *ideal of physical cleanliness, vigor, and efficiency.*

We must accept the necessity, in a world as at present constituted, for universal training for service in defense of our nation and of the ideals for which the nation stands. This education between the ages of nineteen and twenty-one promises much for the realization by all of the obligations of citizenship and for social solidarity. During this period we may hope as well to provide further training in preparation for useful and productive work and for the development of habits of thought and of action which make for individual and for national efficiency. The training of a powerful citizen soldiery has been accomplisht in Switzerland without the development of a military caste or of a militaristic government. We may surely

hope to provide adequately for the defense of our democracy, while still preserving our democratic ideals and practices.

Never before in our history have we been so critical as we are now of our system of public education. Never before have we been so willing to sacrifice for the sake of maintaining the principles of democracy in the world. May we realize now that democracy's greatest safeguard is the public school. May we recognize the necessity for the development of a more efficient public-school system costing vastly greater sums of money. The hope of humanity rests upon the education of the children of our democratic society.

THE CHILDREN'S YEAR AND THE OPPORTUNITY OF THE KINDERGARTEN FOR CONSERVATION WORK IN CONGESTED CITIES

ELIZABETH A. WOODWARD, SUPERVISOR OF THE BROOKLYN FREE KINDERGARTEN SOCIETY, BROOKLYN, N.Y.

July 4, 1918, is a significant national birthday because a year ago we took upon ourselves a larger responsibility for freedom. Every man in our allied Army loves liberty and justice more than life. This adds new meaning to our holiday. This adds new emphasis for our education. After one year of war we pause at a great convention to plan for a future which holds the promise of a greater justice and unity of purpose for all races now living under our flag.

Concern for children is a fundamental and common interest; therefore it is fitting that we should discuss at home their primal needs while we are engaged abroad in a war for their protection. Our problem is, not only how can we *save* more little children for the nation, but how can we help them to be more worthy of the new democracy which they are to inherit at the end of this great struggle? How can we best fit them to shoulder the new and perhaps greater responsibility of peace?

THE REASONS FOR PROCLAIMING AND PLANS FOR CONDUCTING A CHILDREN'S YEAR

The Children's Year was declared by the Children's Bureau of Washington to extend from April 6, 1918, to April 6, 1919. It has the hearty support of President Wilson and two departments of the Council of National Defense, the Child Welfare Department and the General Medical Board.

Three years of war reveal to us the fact that children are the chief sufferers. During England's first war years twelve babies died at home for every nine men who died at the front. One of the posters published for their first baby-saving campaign in London, September, 1917, read: "It is more dangerous to be a baby in England than to be a soldier in the trenches."

The children under six are to be given particular attention in our national crusade. The "forgotten army" includes four million children from three to six years of age in our country. The same tidal wave of interest in physical education for the higher grades has at last swept over the land for the children of kindergarten age.

The special aim of the Children's Year is to save one hundred thousand more babies than usual. Each city is to have its quota. Headquarters for registration and medical examinations will be establisht in every community. All agencies for child welfare that now exist will be fully commandeered for service. The services of trained workers, especially of kindergartners who have had valuable experience in home visiting and holding of mothers' meetings, will be enlisted by the Children's Year committees. The year's publicity plans include drives by months thru newspapers, pamphlets, posters, and meetings.

AMERICANIZATION WORK CONDUCTED BY KINDERGARTNERS IN CONGESTED CITIES

According to statistics of 1910, 72 per cent of the foreign population of the United States reside in our cities. This is why Americanization problems are largely urban. There are in the United States 4,500,000 children from four to six years of age mainly of foreign parentage. Only one-twelfth of these are in kindergartens.

How can we guide in a wholesome, constructive way this teeming life of childhood in our city streets? In the first place, our streets are not safe. Our cities are built for adults, but they *must* be made fit for child life. We deplore the fact that many of our grade children are on *part* time, but is it not worse that there is *no* time for over 100,000 children from four to six years of age in one of our cities, New York? Most of those left on the streets are foreign children who might at least acquire the English language in the kindergarten during these two plastic years.

THE PART THE KINDERGARTEN IS TO PLAY IN THIS CHILD-CONSERVATION PROGRAM

The kindergarten as part of the United States public-school system has come into its majority. Last week the International Kindergarten Union celebrated in Chicago its silver anniversary. The modern, expanding kindergarten is peculiarly an American growth. Its spirit is democratic, its basic ideal is social cooperation under the Golden Rule. Its method is play, the only natural instinctive one for early education.

In one hundred and twenty cities of the United States kindergartens were opened in 1916, and over two thousand new ones were establisht. Why has interest in kindergarten education grown even more intense during this first year of the war? There are several answers to this question. In the first place child life has become more precious in the eyes of the nation, and in the second place the schools have changed their emphasis.

All educational systems are separating the essential from the nonessential. The things that are hardest to measure have won out. Health, social service, civic cooperation, loyalty, individual initiative, creative power, and moral values take precedence in all war-modified programs over the formal three R's.

The foundation for civic education must be laid in the most impressionable period, the habit-forming and habit-setting period, even before the first grade. "If we are to build a democracy we must begin at the beginning. The kindergarten is a true American society in miniature." Its democratic ideals, its social philosophy, its emphasis upon individual development and freedom were feared by the autocracy in Prussia. The kindergarten was refused admittance into the school system of that German state. This act of persecution of a true educational reform caused such deep disappointment that it hastened the death of the founder of the kindergarten. Nowhere in Germany or on the Continent of Europe has a kindergarten system been successfully conducted. In America alone has it found its true home. Every child in the United States, native or foreign, should have the right to be admitted into the public schools at the age of four. We have planned to save the lives of one hundred thousand children. What are we saving them for? The 70 per cent who never advance beyond the elementary school must have a fighting chance in the face of the stern demands of modern civilization.

Removing difficulties confronting children *at the start* is a fundamental civic duty of which our enlightened educators are becoming aware. We must plan to do this without waste of time. What the psychologists call the highly emotional period under the age of six cannot be neglected. It is most economical to give our city children ample space for play. All four-year-old children should be under the expert guidance of a kindergartner at least three hours of every day. There is no necessity for formalism. When each child's development is carefully guided the kindergartner becomes a playmate rather than a teacher. The social responsibilities, the vocabulary of experience begun in the kindergarten should be continuously carried on in the grades, and creative power and initiative should be nurtured.

FURTHER SUGGESTIONS FOR A WAR MODIFIED PROGRAM

"Faith without works" will never bring about the necessary elementary-school reforms which are being suggested for present emphasis. In conservative cities planned only for adults little children will some day "come into their own!"

1. More gardens and outdoor playgrounds must be establisht in connection with every kindergarten.

2. More kindergartens and regular lower-grade work must be done outdoors.

3. More excursions, autobus rides, and daily trips must be taken by city classes in order that abstract and artificial impression may be counteracted.

4. More teachers must be trained both for primary and for kindergarten service. These teachers should be capable of carrying on the work with the children into the first and second grades.

5. More normal schools will have to organize kindergarten departments to meet the demands for teachers for the youngest children.

6. The supervision of both kindergarten and primary years should be vested in one person, understanding and trained for both and preferably with teaching experience in both. In no better way can the unity between the kindergarten and the school be establisht.

7. Scientists and medical experts are now telling us that no inexperienst teacher should be placed in charge of the delicate task of educating and guiding young children in these formative years.

8. As Dr. Dewey tells us, moral principles should pervade every act and attitude of school work.

In our first year of war juvenile crime increast 20 per cent in New York City, notwithstanding the experiences of Europe. Since young children can reap only the savage end of war, it is imperative that we plan very definitely in these impressionable years for the construction of the moral fiber of the nation. Upon this depends America's future unity and permanent peace.

In addition to the moral and intellectual work with the children, the gradual transformation of the ignorant foreign home made possible thru the services of the kindergartner by her constant neighborhood visiting and holding of mothers' meetings will, in the coming year as in the past, be her chief contribution to Americanization work.

In conclusion, what is our personal part, our own definite, constructive program, for the Children's Year? What are we individually going to do in 1918–19 about the nation's "forgotten army"? Not only how many children's lives are we to save, but how many children are to be placed in kindergartens? How many in playgrounds? How many foreign homes are we to influence? How many foreign mothers are we to reach with friendly counsel for their own, as well as for their children's, sake?

We have long protected our forests; we have planted and cultivated our war gardens, and now, during the Children's Year, while we encourage the growth of our country's corn, we will not forget to guard the growth of our future citizens.

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

PITTSBURGH MEETING

OFFICERS

President—William B. Owen, Principal, Chicago Normal College.....Chicago, Ill.
Vice-President—Augustus S. Downing, first assistant commissioner of education. Albany, N.Y.
Secretary—Adelaide Steele Baylor,.....Indianapolis, Ind.

FIRST SESSION—Saturday Afternoon, June 29, 1918

The meeting was called to order by the president, at 2:00 p.m., in the Italian Room of the William Penn Hotel.

Dr. Owen spoke on the present organization of the Council by way of introduction to the discussion of changes in such organization to accord with proposed changes in the organization of the National Education Association, to make it more democratic and representative, and to determine how, under present conditions, the Council could best perform its function as a real educational body of the National Education Association.

Interesting résumés of the history of the Council and its work were given by some of the older members, and while it was agreed that the work of the Council could be greatly strengthened by some changes in the organization there was no unanimity of opinion as to how this might best be brought about.

On motion of L. N. Hines, Crawfordsville, Ind., a committee of five was appointed by the president to consider a plan of reorganization in harmony with the recommendations of the committee for reorganization of the National Education Association, and to report at the Tuesday meeting. The following were named as members of that committee: W. A. Brandenburg, Pittsburg, Kans.; Katharine D. Blake, New York, N.Y.; Uel W. Lamkin, Jefferson City, Mo.; L. N. Hines, Crawfordsville, Ind.; Josephine Collins Preston, Olympia, Wash.

SECOND SESSION—Saturday Evening, June 29, 1918

The meeting was called to order by the president at 8:00 p.m., in the Italian Room of the William Penn Hotel.

Arthur H. Chamberlain, chairman of the Committee on Thrift Education, was invited to take charge of the program, which consisted mainly of addresses from the various members of his committee.

The topics for the evening—"Financing the War thru Thrift" and "Reconstruction thru Conservation" were discust in the following papers:

"Club Work and Salvage"—Henry R. Daniel, secretary, American Society for Thrift, Chicago, Ill.

"The Patriotism of War Savings"—S. W. Straus, president, American Society for Thrift, New York, N.Y.

R. H. Wilson, state superintendent of public instruction, Oklahoma City, Okla., could not be present, and his paper on "The War-Garden Movement" was read by Mr. Daniel.

"Husbanding Human Resources"—Katharine D. Blake, principal, Public School No. 6, New York, N.Y.

"Thrift and Commercial Supremacy"—J. A. Bexell, dean, School of Commerce, State Agricultural College, Corvallis, Ore.

Mr. Chamberlain gave a summary and conclusions touching on the purpose and plan of the committee and the vital importance of its work, and the discussion was closed by Dr. G. D. Strayer, of Columbia University, director of the War School Savings Committee, who spoke at the request of Mr. Chamberlain on the concrete relation of these problems to the schools, as shown by the work of his committee.

THIRD SESSION—Tuesday, July 2, 1918

The meeting was called to order at 9:00 a.m., by the president.

It was moved and seconded that when the business meeting of the Council adjourned a recess be taken until the next regular meeting of the Council.

There was informal discussion as to the time to be fixt for such meeting and the subjects to be discust. It was the unanimous opinion of the members present that the Council should meet during the week of the National Education Association meeting, preferably Monday or Tuesday of that week.

The recommendations of the Committee on Nomination of Officers and Members where vacancies occurred were as follows:

Dr. H. H. Seerly, Cedar Falls, Iowa, vice-president.

Mrs. Ella Flagg Young, Washington, D.C., member of Executive Committee to succeed Ellen C. Sabin.

Nathan C. Schaeffer, Harrisburg, Pa., to succeed Augustus S. Downing as a member of the Committee on Membership.

Carroll G. Pearse, Milwaukee, Wis., to succeed himself as a member of the Committee on Membership.

The following were appointed members of the Council to succeed themselves, with terms expiring in 1924: Mrs. Ella Flagg Young, Washington, D.C.; Edwin S. Monroe, Muskogee, Okla.; W. H. Elson, Cleveland, Ohio; John W. Carr, Philadelphia, Pa.; Grace C. Forsythe, Brooklyn, N.Y.; Carleton B. Gibson, Rochester, N.Y.; C. G. Schulz, St. Paul, Minn.; Oscar T. Corson, Columbus, Ohio; Adelaide Steele Baylor, Indianapolis, Ind.

To supply vacancies caused by death or by the lapsing of memberships the following were named:

Wm. K. Dwyer, superintendent of schools, Anaconda, Mont., with term expiring in 1924, to succeed Edward C. Elliott (membership lapst).

Mrs. Una B. Herrick, dean of women, College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts, University of Montana, Bozeman, Mont., with term expiring in 1919, to succeed Bettie A. Dutton (deceast).

Cora Wilson Stuart, president, Kentucky Illiteracy Commission, Frankfort, Ky., with term expiring in 1920, to succeed O. S. Wescott (membership lapst).

W. A. Lewis, president, Fort Hays State Normal School, Hays, Kans., with term expiring in 1921, to succeed L. E. Wolfe (membership lapst).

This report of the Committee on Nomination of Officers and Members was unanimously approved by the Council.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

THE PATRIOTISM OF WAR SAVINGS

S. W. STRAUS, PRESIDENT, AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THRIFT, NEW YORK, N.Y.

America today stands in the position in which all her economic problems must be solved thru thrift. Whether we consider plans for the defeat of the sinister forces that are pounding at the very foundations of civilization or whether we have in mind the smallest details of home and business routine, the answer remains the same. America, because of her boundless resources, has been the last of the nations to turn to thrift. Today, happily, she is learning the value of this virtue and the folly of improvidence. The thrift of patriotism, the thrift of sacrifice, this is the spirit of war savings. It is the same spirit that makes glorious the heroism of the boys in the trenches of France. For patriotism is the same, whether it be over there or back here.

We have come into a new order of things. The days of right by might are ending. Military autocracy belongs to an age that is gone. This war marks the darkness that precedes the dawn of universal democracy—a democracy lifted to the lofty level of brotherhood.

Into the statesmanship, the politics, the business of the day that is breaking just ahead, there will come a new spirit—a spirit of honesty, generosity, and gentleness. The statesmanship of the world will be successful only in so far as it is honorable and just. The politician who achieves success will attain his ends by worthy acts alone. The business man must stand on the broad ground of real brotherhood. The attitude between employer and employé will be that of man to man, not of master to slave. Every man must practice thrift, and every man must have the chance to practice it. It will be the duty of every employer to see that his employés do practice thrift, that the conditions of employment are such that they can practice it. The autocracy of politics and the autocracy of business have reacht the day of reckoning. The dollar sign is passing as the insignia of ruthless power, and the day is dawning when it shall stand as the symbol of protection to the weak and help for the worthy.

Are we fighting this war merely to crush a coterie of madmen whose hearts are beating in unison with the cruelty and treachery of mediaevalism and whose standards of life are those of Frederick the Great? Is it the only object of this war to demonstrate that the feudal spirit of the eighteenth century was wrong? No, we are fighting this war for a democracy that shall reach down and take root in the heart of every citizen in every country. There is no such a thing as a democracy that is not universal, any more than there is an autocracy that is tolerant.

These things are to be among the fruits of this war. And into this order of life the universal practice of thrift must come, for thrift is the very

essence of democracy itself. Thrift is upbuilding and constructive—essentials without which no true republicanism can permanently endure. These are some of the lessons which we must learn from the great textbook of passing history. There never will come a time in our national life when thrift will not be a necessity. It is as vital to our success in winning the war as are powder and steel. And in the period of readjustment following the war thrift will be just as essential. Millions of men will come home from the war to take up again the occupations of peace. The present acute scarcity of labor will be ended. The pressing demand for war supplies will be over. The inflation that now exists will subside rapidly. In this readjustment there will be need for thrift and economy to preserve the equilibrium. And as the years go on, the prodigious losses of the war must be made up thru thrift. Humanity must save then what it is destroying today. The time when thrift will not be needed—needed as vitally as food itself—will never come.

And so out of the spirit of our patriotism in war savings let us coin a new phrase—the patriotism of peace savings.

Thrift will win the war, and after the days of bloodshed are over the nations will bind up their wounds thru thrift. Thru thrift alone can the rebuilding come—the rebuilding of America, the rebuilding of the world. In peace or war thrift is the strong right arm of civilization. Thru it we have made splendid progress in the year of our belligerency. Thru thrift victory will come to us—victory and peace—which, let us hope, will mark the end of all war for all time.

THRIFT AND COMMERCIAL SUPREMACY

J. A. BEXELL, DEAN, SCHOOL OF COMMERCE, STATE AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, CORVALLIS, ORE.

The increase of surplus is accomplisht in any ordinary business by at least four fundamental methods: (1) by an increast volume of business; (2) by a decreast ratio of operating expenses to the volume of business; (3) by utilizing more effectively the capital employed and every facility used in carrying on the business, including labor, material, and equipment; and (4) by the employment of new methods and by education.

The old economic doctrine that growth of wealth depends on the ability and disposition of people to save is the foundation upon which every successful business rests; but this involves a very much larger conception and interpretation of the idea of saving than is commonly understood by this term. It involves all the four fundamental methods which were just named as the requisites to the growth of every successful business.

What has been said regarding the success of an individual business is also true of larger units, and it is true regarding the growth of the wealth of nations. If we examine the balance sheet of the United States we find that

the per capita wealth has increast from $308 in 1850 to $1965 in 1912, which is vastly in excess of the increast cost of living. In 1900 the national wealth was something over eighty-eight and a half billions of dollars; in 1912 it had risen to about one hundred eighty-seven and three-fourths billions, and today it is estimated at something over two hundred billions. Thus in twelve years there has been a growth in capital of approximately eight billion dollars annually. This represents the gross annual national surplus. Now, just as in the individual business the growth of the surplus depends upon increast volume, decreast ratio of expenditures, increast efficiency, and improved business methods and education, so it is in the nation.

We find that, making the most liberal allowance for war conditions and for the increasing cost of living and the decreasing purchasing power of money, we have done very well nationally, and that there has been an uninterrupted growth of the national wealth; and on this premise we may safely predict a still more rapid expansion in the near future than in the past.

But if we examine the national income and expense account in detail we find that we have come far short of having managed the nation's business as efficiently and economically as could have been done. Thus we find on the expense side the stupendous total of over two billion gallons of alcoholic beverages consumed in 1916, the retail cost of which to the consumer is claimed to exceed thirteen billions of dollars. Last year we invested in pleasure vehicles something over a billion dollars. The national waste in tobacco is almost beyond computation. In 1916 one and a half million acres were used in growing tobacco, the tax on cigarettes alone was twenty-six million dollars, and there was an increase of four billion cigarettes consumed in 1916 over the preceding year. For cheap shows the American people expended not less than two billion dollars last year, and no one pretends to estimate the time wasted in this useless form of amusement. The expense items do not include the incalculable sum which represents the total waste in our domestic, commercial, and political economy. The waste in fuel, food, and labor is so stupendous that figures fail adequately to express it.

The greatest single item of waste is undoubtedly the waste of labor. This takes the form of absolute idleness, of occupations which are worse than idleness, of misdirected labor, and of soldiering on the job. Nearly a hundred years ago John Stewart Mill wrote, "We look in vain among the working classes in general for the just pride which will choose to give good work for good wages." This reads as if it might have been a commentary on the soldiering in our own shipyards and on our own farms.

Since the foregoing was written the hopeful order of Provost General Crowder has been issued, compelling every person of draft age to "do war work or fight." Showing the necessity for the step, the General said:

> One of the unanswerable criticisms of the draft has been that it takes men from the farms and useful occupations and marches them past crowds of loafers and idlers. The

remedy is simple—to couple the industrial basis with other grounds for exemption and to require that any man pleading exemption shall also show that he is contributing effectively to the industrial welfare of the nation.

This is the greatest single step toward national efficiency ever taken by this nation. More than anything else, if properly enforst, it will stimulate national thrift and will not only insure victory over the foe of freedom, but insure for us commercial supremacy.

One of the greatest lessons that will be driven home by the world-war is that a nation's strength is proportional not only to its resources but to its resourcefulness, to its willingness to sacrifice, and to its ability and disposition to save, and this in turn will determine the commercial supremacy of the nation. It is claimed by economists that the potential power for saving of the American people is upward of fifteen billion dollars annually. This means that we could maintain our present standard of living and national wealth and pay off the entire debt of the present war in three or four years, even if it should last so long a time.

One of the most important considerations before the nation is to study post-bellum problems; and one of the most pertinent of these problems is to organize a general campaign for saving, so that the awakened national consciousness for thrift and sane living may not again slumber but be quickened by a national organization for the service of all mankind.

THRIFT IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

ARTHUR H. CHAMBERLAIN, EDITOR, "SIERRA EDUCATIONAL NEWS," SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.

The Americans are the most prodigal people in the world. Criminal neglect has been shown in our handling of the resources of nature. There is great personal loss and wastage in time, money, and energy. Our forests are wantonly destroyed; our best soils are washt to the sea; our coal, gas, and oil are extravagantly used. Water power is running to waste. The coming of the war and the lessons taught in a concrete and severe way by the great conflict serve as object lessons in bringing to life many weaknesses in our social fabric and in our schools. The suggested changes in our mode of living and in our courses of study, which for three decades have had ample exponents in theory, are now for the first time finding practical application.

Every child should know the value of money, should work and earn, should save and invest, and should be taught how to spend properly. Thrift is not hoarding; it is use without waste. There must be thrift in dress. The war has clearly shown the necessity for conservation in food. There has been waste in foodstuffs beyond ability to estimate. Not merely in hotels and restaurants or in the homes of the wealthy has this

waste been taking place. It is in the rural communities where frequently the greatest waste is noticeable. The garbage pail and a false economic system have been persistently and surely robbing the future of its food heritage. Neither state nor nation has performed its full duty until every boy and every girl has been taught in the public schools how to prepare and serve a palatable meal. The schools today are helping to prosecute the war thru the collection of waste materials. Old papers, magazines, iron, lead, copper, tin foil, bottles, containers of all sorts, stamps, and various other materials are collected by school children. Unused garden plots have been brought under cultivation, discarded clothing has been renovated and repaired, problems in arithmetic have been given a thrift setting thru application to food supply, preparation, and use. The work of the Junior Red Cross and of War Savings has shown that the schools' part in financing the war is beyond our most far-reaching surmise of a few months ago. All this is but a suggestion of the possibilities for thrift instruction in the public schools.

Equally important with the value of the materials thus saved and used is that of the establishment of the habit of thrift on the part of the boys and girls. This personal thrift should be developt into community thrift and this again into national thrift.

DEMOCRATIC FACTORS IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

A. DUNCAN YOCUM, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND PRACTICE
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Educational thinkers and workers have been so usefully concerned with the contributions that education can make to the war that the larger and more enduring effects of the war on education have been, for the time being, overlookt. As we emphasize the aspects of education necessary to the winning of the war we must become equally conscious of those phases of education thru which our democracy must be made more complete and of the adjustment of educational aims and values to the great changes which the war has already brought about and the gigantic social and political problems that promise to compel their own solution at its close. If America's democracy fails to purify and complete itself in the struggle for its continued existence it may, even tho victorious, be transformed into some form of class control, undemocratic in its ideals and its substance, no matter under what name it masquerades. It is only the *form* of democracy that is preserved and transmitted thru war. If the *spirit* and *substance* of democracy are to be preserved and made more universal and controlling, it must be thru education as well as war.

The most immediate and conspicuous effect of the war on education is an emphasis on the scientific and technical fields. The movement

already begun by Dr. Eliot and Dr. Flexner to broaden the scope of scientific instruction in the elementary school has received new impetus from the opportunity for service and promotion given to scientifically and technically trained men in various war activities and the consequent inrush of students into scientific and technical courses in colleges and universities at a time when attendance has seriously fallen off in almost every other department.

The selection and adaptation to common use of subject-matter essential to intelligent citizenship and until now reserved for the specialist and not even required of most college students constitute a great national service. There is no little danger, however, that these efforts may unite with the pressure of immediate war needs to give national sanction to an overemphasis on science in the course of study and a too exclusively vocational common school.

The educational program for a completer democracy.—(1) American education must become more democratic in its administration and methods of instruction. (2) In courses of study democratic rights and duties must be more definitely, inclusively, and adequately specified. (3) Specific social training must not only be prevented from excluding general education but must become a means to a general education as definitely and efficiently democratic as specific training itself. (4) Not only school officials, but the American people as a whole, must be made more concretely and certainly conscious of the democracy and therefore the immediate and preeminent importance of every phase and detail of school work that is essential to a completer democracy. (5) The education of Americans to a completer democracy is a national function which must not be left to the varying consciousness and efficiency of community or state but, like school attendance itself, must be compelled.

The obvious need of more definite training in specifically democratic rights and duties.—The necessity for more definite, inclusive, and adequate democracy in specifically social phases of instruction is even more obvious. The school must teach, not only obedience to law, but equality of legal rights; not only the necessity for taxation, but equality in levy and assessment. Every aspect of equal service must be definitely included and adequately and economically taught, not merely as information, but as ideals, viewpoints, and habits strong enough to control action and constitute character.

The undemocracy of the leisure that results from equally trained skill.—The form of democracy with which Americans, both native and foreign-born, are most familiar is the democracy of equal opportunity, which in some of its ultimate outcomes is not democratic at all. Inequalities in mental ability are made more unequal thru education. Moreover, differences in ability become vastly greater as they are transformed by equal education into inequalities in skill. The wish to perform public service in accordance with one's ability, intensified as it now is thru the work of

the school as a cooperative community, is splendidly democratic. But skill itself is undemocratic because it is unequal in its immediate financial compensation and in the ultimate social compensations which represent the individual side of community service.

Democratic social intercourse essential to a stable democracy.—If it is to remain democratic, equal education to unequal skill must have as its inseparable concomitant the equal enjoyment of leisure. The essential factors in equal social intercourse are: correctness of speech, a natural observance of fundamental social conventions, combined with the common feelings and ideals of which they are but the outward expression; ordinary skill in games and amusements; common tastes and appreciations; a breadth of experience and interest which thru its many-sidedness is more likely to include much common to all individuals; the possession of general ideas with common and definite associations which suggest common interests in the most varying individual knowledge and experience; and common feelings, ideals, and attitudes of mind as the educational product of a literature that emotionalizes the older moralities and what is most fundamental in democracy.

The democracy of general education.—To all this must be added a general intellectual training in the sense of both knowledge and intellectual interests, many-sided enough for most individuals to have them in common, and of general ideas with a common enough suggestiveness to interrelate widely different individual experiences. Social intercourse is not equal and democratic when men look down upon each other or up to each other from isolated intellectual levels and unrelated phases of human experience.

The necessity for a democratic literature.—Finally no people can be truly democratic if its popular literature develops feelings, ideals, and motives that are unmoral, individualistic, or aristocratic. Nietzschianism and supermanism interpreted and made appealing thru popular German literature, with its contempt for the "older moralities," its freedom of development for strong individuals, and its justification of the neglect, the misuse, or the elimination of the weak, is the emotional justification for the Prussianism of today. What is most democratic, both in American life and in the history of the race, emotionalized both by the dramatic content of history and by the emotional form of literature, must with equal completeness and efficiency be transformed into the ideals and motives that will compel democratic feeling and democratic life.

A growing consciousness of these democratic elements already existing in American education, and their consequent emphasis, conspicuousness, and efficiency are the only means by which democracy will be made safe for the world thru education while the world is being made safe for democracy thru war.

A NATIONAL PROGRAM OF HEALTH EDUCATION

THOMAS D. WOOD, PROFESSOR OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N.Y.

War throws a spotlight of convincing clearness upon national defects. We are beginning to suspect, if not fully to realize, that even more essential and fundamental to the integrity and permanence of a nation than scientific progress, political achievement, industrial development, and economic accomplishment are biological soundness and fitness, the health of the people. This national asset, health, while the most essential, is at the present time the most endangered, of all our natural resources. We are appalled at the number of our young men, in both voluntary and draft enlistment, who are incapable of defending their country, who are rejected from military service because of physical and mental defects.

While types of disease and weakness are markedly different in their prevalence in and effects upon the sexes, still the welfare of the nation is, on the whole, as seriously threatened by the physical limitations of girls and women as by those of boys and men.

Some there are who, in view of recent revelations, apprehend this menace to the welfare of the nation. And yet it has been known for years before this great war engulft us that 75 per cent of the more than twenty million school children of this country were handicapt by physical defects.

In the mobilization of our nation's resources for the stupendous task of this war, records even of men in our great training camps, who have been accepted as fit for military service, show that in multitudes of cases and within six months after the beginning of training the improvement in health, in vitality, and in physical and general efficiency has been almost incredible. Shall we not provide as thoro and effective health care and physical education for the children of our country as we furnish for the young men in the army and navy? Our schools are wasting enormous sums in educating, or trying to educate, the children who are handicapt by ill health, when the expenditure of much smaller amounts in a judicious health program would produce an extraordinary saving in economy and efficiency.

Of the school children of the United States 75 per cent—16,000,000—have physical defects which are potentially or actually detrimental to health. Most of these defects are remediable. One of the appalling revelations of recent years is the conclusion, based on unrefuted evidence, that the rural school children in this country are handicapt by more physical defects than the pupils in the city schools. While several significant causes seem to be responsible for this astounding condition, the present physical inferiority of country children depends in part upon the fact that city children now receive more health care than do those in rural regions. The school in the United States is the universal, the officially credited, and the strategic agency to lead in the educational program of health, to standardize the principles

involved, and to organize and supervise the social program for the care of the children's health. A national program of health education, adequate in any way to the essential needs of the situation, must include the following items:

1. Health examination and supervision of the pupils' health with provision for the following phases: (*a*) daily inspection and regulation of attendance at school for the prevention and control of acute and contagious diseases; (*b*) provision for the general health of the pupils should include the following: (1) health examination and dental inspection at least once a year, followed by notification and advice to the homes; (2) follow-up health service by school and district nurses, with cooperation of home and all available organizations; (3) provision for correction of all harmful, remediable defects by medical and surgical care and by dental and health clinics; (4) warm school lunches for all pupils who do not eat warm lunches at home.

2. A healthful school environment. The schoolhouse should be as sanitary and healthful in all essential particulars as is the best home in the community. Further, it should be pleasing and attractive in appearance, in furnishings, and in surroundings, so that the community as a whole may be proud of it.

3. A hygienic school management which insures conditions in the highest degree favorable and healthful in methods and materials of instruction, in arrangements of program, in length of school day, in forms of examinations and tests, in methods of grading and promotion, in arrangement and supervision of recesses, in requirements of home study, and in personality and influence of teachers.

4. Effective health training and teaching of pupils which is dependent upon: (*a*) inculcation of health habits affecting the pupil individually and in relation to the home, school, community, and the state; (*b*) instruction in facts, principles, and motives which will provide the best basis for intelligent and effective action; (*c*) greater emphasis upon health than upon disease in the program of health-teaching; (*d*) greater emphasis upon social than upon personal or individual aspects of hygiene; (*e*) education of children for responsible parenthood.

5. Provision of an adequate and rational physical education with: (*a*) well-equipt playgrounds, athletic fields, gymnasiums, and utilization of all available outdoor facilities; (*b*) employment of teachers and supervisors qualified to give sensible and satisfactory guidance to the physical-training activities; (*c*) the acceptance of useful and healthful social service and vocational activities in the physical-training program.

6. Better preparation of teachers for health education: (*a*) the teachers should be more carefully selected, and they should be more adequately trained; (*b*) society should provide more favorable conditions for the preservation of the teacher's health and for the improved efficiency of the teacher's work.

To provide the essentials of administration for a "National Program of Health Education," I submit the following propositions:

1. That a comprehensive, thorogoing program of health education and physical education is absolutely needed for all boys and girls of elementary- and secondary-school age, both rural and urban, in every state in the Union.

2. That legislation, similar in purpose and scope to the provisions and requirements in the laws recently enacted in California, New York state, and New Jersey, is desirable in every state, to provide authorization and support for state-wide programs in the health and physical-education field.

3. That the United States Bureau of Education should be empowered by law and provided with sufficient appropriations to exert adequate influence and supervision in relation to a nation-wide program of instruction in health and physical education.

4. That it seems most desirable that Congress should give recognition to this vital and neglected phase of education, with a bill and appropriation similar in purpose and scope to the Smith-Hughes Law, to give sanction, leadership, and support to a national program of health and physical education; and to encourage, standardize, and in part finance the practical program of constructive work that should be undertaken in every state.

5. That federal recognition, supervision, and support are urgently needed, as the effective means under the Constitution, to secure that universal training of boys and girls in health and physical fitness which are equally essential to the efficiency of all citizens both in peace and in war.

A French war correspondent said recently, "I wish you knew our French lieutenant. He is one of the finest men I ever hope to know. He makes you feel that even more than the great cathedrals he should be guarded and protected—for France." And so I say to you—I wish you appreciated the children and youth of this Republic. They make up, in possibilities, the finest generation of human beings that the world has ever seen. They make you feel that, even more than the great museums and monuments, more than great industrial plants and ships, more than great skyscrapers and cathedrals, they should be guarded and protected, cultivated and developt, for America—for the world.

CLUB WORK AND SALVAGE

HENRY R. DANIEL, SECRETARY, AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THRIFT, CHICAGO, ILL.

The various phases of thrift work being accomplisht by organizations are so manifold that complete enumeration of these activities is impossible in this brief space, and one can give only the general trend of these accomplishments.

In the matter of increast food production our war gardens last season produced crops valued at $350,000,000. Much of this work was organized by the various state councils of defense, with valuable aid from the Food Administration, school organizations, and farm and garden clubs. The vast amount of new food products produced by war gardens serves as an illustration of the limitless food-producing possibilities of the United States, working under conditions of thoro organization.

In the matter of salvage—the elimination of waste—the same condition is presented. Notable results have been accomplisht here and there, and a citation of some of the most interesting follows: At a recent meeting of the waste-paper dealers the announcement was made that since the war the junk business in America has grown from one hundred million dollars annually to a billion; in other words, there is an increast salvage of nine hundred million dollars a year. Club activity has been responsible for much of this, particularly for the saving and selling waste paper. At Des Moines, Iowa, for example, the school children gathered and sold $2,000 worth of waste paper in a week. Similar results were obtained in many other American cities where various organizations assisted the schools in gathering junk of all kinds and placing it on the market.

The Council of Defense in Milwaukee has successfully inaugurated a plan of getting fish in large quantities from the lake and selling them to the poor people of the city at prices ranging from five to seven cents a pound. We believe that this plan could be operated in many other places under club management, thus permitting many poor people to save money who cannot now do so because of the high cost of living.

Early in the war fish dealers of northern California formed an exchange and appropriated 5 per cent of their gross sales as an advertising fund. The public was given instructions in the food values of varieties of fish that hitherto had little or no market demand. As a result the average price of the fish to the consumers in northern California was lowered 10 per cent. This result was secured at an average cost of about 2 per cent on wholesale sales in a single month. Hundreds of tons of good fish are now being used as food, which formerly were dumpt back into the sea, or were used in the manufacture of glue and fertilizer, being sold for these commercial purposes at five to ten cents a pound, while the public was paying a high price for halibut, salmon, striped bass, smelt, and tenderloin of sole fifteen days after the fish had been caught in northern waters.

In Omaha, Neb., the garbage from a chain of restaurants is fed to four hundred hogs, of which one hundred are ready for slaughter every three months.

The Cotton Seed Crushers' Association of New Orleans is developing the possibilities of cotton seed for food, and at a recent banquet served cakes, cookies, and pastry of various kinds made of a combination of cotton-seed flour and white flour.

A process of producing wood alcohol from sawdust has been workt out by the Forestry Products Laboratory, of Madison, Wis., by which one ton of dry sawdust, worth fifty cents, will produce fifteen to twenty-five gallons of 190-proof spirit. A plant large enough to distil from 2500 to 3000 gallons of alcohol daily can manufacture wood alcohol at a cost of from fourteen to twenty cents a gallon.

In Mobile, Ala., a brewery has been turned into a factory to manufacture vinegar from watermelons. The juice is used for this purpose, and the rinds are fed to stock.

At a number of places on the Pacific Coast whale meat is now being packt and shipt, while along the Atlantic Coast shark meat is coming into general use. We are told that at a recent banquet given by the Chamber of Commerce at Raleigh, N.C., a mysterious dish planned and served by the Bureau of Fisheries proved to be creamed shark.

The Jefferson market, which has been operated there since 1832, has for many years meant a loss to the taxpayers of more than $18,000 a year, but now bids fair to be turned to a profitable venture. How far the cooperative idea can with success be carried in America is a problem. In England we have the spectacle of cooperators buying sugar in their own stores at one-third or one-fifth the price their neighbors pay the corner grocery.

We are told by statisticians that French cooperative societies, most important of which is the French Wholesale Society, represent a total cooperative trade of more than five million francs a year, and the saving of about 10 per cent to the consumer, not all of which comes out of the retailers' pockets, but which is largely accounted for in the elimination of waste thru unscientific and improvident methods of distribution.

We believe that the government, both during the period of the war, and afterward, should foster and encourage all public organizations which have for their object the increase in salvage of food and other materials. It will take generations to develop a system of organizations which will bring about a condition in the elimination of waste such as existed in France before the war, but we are now on the right road. Time, patience, and persistency will bring about the desired results.

THE WAR GARDEN MOVEMENT

R. H. WILSON, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, OKLAHOMA CITY, OKLA.

The problem of financing the war will not be solved by a treaty of peace. Years after the guns have ceast to thunder our people will still be financing this war. How many years will be required will depend largely upon the thriftiness of our people after the war as well as during the war. France in 1870 gave us the example we need of the healing powers of thrift. Let us as school men and women prepare to keep alive those organizations

devoted to thrift teaching and thrift practices, to the end that our nation may furnish the brilliant example of the healing powers of thrift during the twentieth century.

As a means of financing the war thru thrift, the war garden offers exceptional opportunities. The money spent for canned vegetables by people who can just as well produce these products at home may be and is being releast for war service in communities where war gardens flourish. The labor, cargo space, and expense of transporting these canned products from the canning factories to the consumers is saved by home production and releast for war service.

In Oklahoma the military plan of organization has been adapted as largely as possible to the local organizations. This proves very effective, especially among the children. Many devices have been employed to stimulate interest and impress upon the people as a whole the importance of producing as much food as possible at home, whether that home be a small city lot or a large ranch. The movement is not confined to the children. The adults are being reacht thru the agency of the county councils and war committees. Rubber stamps bearing such suggestions as "Food Will Win the War; Help Produce It," "Grow a Garden," etc., have been used freely on outgoing mail. Posters with specific directions for planting, cultivating, and conserving garden vegetables have been distributed. The public press has generously devoted pages of space to the movement, the articles printed being prepared by the specialists in charge of the Garden Bureau.

The results of this campaign and organization have been very gratifying indeed. The back yards in cities have become productive vegetable gardens, the farms where heretofore no vegetables were produced are now supplied with home gardens, some of them planted in the middle of fields, where they will be undisturbed by chickens, this being the first year such farms have seen fit to grow their own vegetables. Reports received up to June 1, 1918, showed that there were 338,500 war gardens in Oklahoma, having an estimated value of $16,000,000.

This home-garden movement in Oklahoma is typical of the movement thruout the nation. It is so important as a means of teaching thrift that we as school men and women should begin now to plan to inherit the organization that has been built up and administer it, if necessary, in the future that will follow the war, as a means of keeping alive those impulses of thrift that have been born admits the storm of war.

DEPARTMENT OF KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—Netta Farris, principal, Kindergarten Training School.....Cleveland, Ohio
Secretary—Lillian Poor, assistant director of kindergartens.....Boston, Mass.

FIRST SESSION—Tuesday Afternoon, July 2, 1918

The meeting convened in Carnegie Music Hall at 2:00 p.m., with Miss Netta Farris presiding. In the absence of the secretary, Miss Poor, Miss Farris appointed Miss Ella Ruth Boyce as acting secretary.

The topic for the afternoon was "Conservation of Child Life," and the following program was presented:

"Conservation of Child Life":
"In America"—Elizabeth Harrison, president, National Kindergarten and Elementary College, Chicago, Ill.
"In Europe"—Fannibelle Curtis, supervisor of kindergartens, New York, N.Y.

Miss Ella Merritt, of the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor, gave an account of the work of the Bureau.

Music for the program consisted of two groups of songs sung by Pittsburgh kindergartners, Mr. Will Earhart conducting, and Miss Grace Everson, composer, at the piano.

A nominating committee was appointed to report at a business meeting after the joint meeting of Kindergarten, Elementary, and School Garden Association, July 4, as follows:

Anna Harvey, Brooklyn, N.Y., *chairman.*
Myra Winchester, Washington, D.C.
Meredith Smith, Pittsburgh, Pa.

SECOND SESSION—Thursday Afternoon, July 4, 1918

Joint Session of Kindergarten, Elementary, and School Garden Association, Carnegie Music Hall, at 2:00 p.m.

General Topic—Americanization

Miss Farris, presiding for the Kindergarten Section, presented Dr. Caroline Hedger, of Chicago, who spoke on "The Kindergarten as a Factor in Americanization."

Business Meeting

The meeting was held in Carnegie Music Hall at 4:30 p.m., Miss Farris presiding.

The report of the nominating committee was called for. In Miss Harvey's absence Miss Winchester reported for the committee as follows:

President—Ella Ruth Boyce, director of kindergartens, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Vice-President—Edna Baker, National Kindergarten College, Chicago, Ill.
Secretary—Barbara Greenwood, State Normal School, Los Angeles, Calif.

These officers were elected unanimously and the meeting adjourned.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

WHAT THE GOVERNMENT IS DOING TO CONSERVE CHILD LIFE

ELLA ARVILLA MERRITT, CHILDREN'S BUREAU, DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, WASHINGTON, D.C.

Merely to enumerate all the activities of our national government—to say nothing of those of state and city governments—which help in the conservation of child life in its broadest sense would require more time than we have to devote to this subject. It seems wisest to confine this discussion to those phases of government work with which I am most familiar—the varied activities of the Children's Bureau.

It is the duty of the Children's Bureau, according to the act which created it, "to investigate and report upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of children." With the single exception of the enforcement of the United States Child Labor Act, which is now declared unconstitutional, and which will be discust later, the scope of the Bureau's work is limited to those two duties—to *investigate* and to *report*. If we investigate fully enough and report loud enough somebody else may do something. And it is this obtaining of cooperation which is one of the most important and most interesting phases of our work.

Prevention of infant mortality is perhaps the most obvious method of conserving child life, and the first field investigation undertaken by the Bureau was an inquiry into why babies die and what the conditions are under which they have the best chance of life. This inquiry, beginning in 1913, was planned to extend over several years and to cover various typical communities thruout the country. Studies have been made in nine cities—Johnstown, Pa.; Montclair, N.J.; Manchester, N.H.; Brockton, Mass.; Saginaw, Mich.; New Bedford, Mass.; Waterbury, Conn.; Akron, Ohio; and Baltimore, Md.

In making these studies the mothers of all babies born in a certain selected year are visited by the women agents of the Bureau. Since "infant mortality," technically, means the percentage of babies born who die before they reach one year of age, we select a year just far enough in the past so that the babies will have had a chance to survive that dangerous first year. In their interviews with the mother our agents discover and record the most essential facts affecting the baby's life and health.

The results of these studies are twofold: the effect upon the particular community and a contribution to the body of knowledge of the social causes of unnecessary infant mortality. The whole city becomes interested. The help of the mothers has been generous. Publicity is given to the work by the press, by clergymen, by city authorities, and by local organizations. The problem of how best to safeguard the lives and health of its children

(for the same conditions that make babies die weaken the children who survive) is brought vividly to the attention of the city as a whole, and efforts to remedy specific local conditions are stimulated.

Leaving these more elaborate, intensive studies, we may consider other methods by which the Children's Bureau is bringing before the people of the country information as to the needs of mothers and young children. Since the establishment of the Bureau cooperation has been maintained with women's clubs in the different states. Birth-registration tests, some of them under the direction of the Bureau, have been made by different communities, and the need for better birth-registration laws have been emphasized. Reports on the different kinds of infant-welfare work done in a large number of communities in the United States have been summarized. A series of popular bulletins on the care of mothers and children have been planned—bulletins no less scientific because written in simple language. Two of these, *Prenatal Care* and *Infant Care*, were publisht during the first two years of the Bureau's existence and another (*Child Care*) is in press.

But some definite method of arousing nation-wide publicity and interest seemed essential, and to meet this need Baby Week was suggested. The first nation-wide Baby Week was held in 1916, under the auspices of the Children's Bureau and the General Federation of Women's Clubs, and another was held last year. Baby Week is a distinctly community celebration, its aim being to arouse public interest in the local needs of maternity and infancy and to emphasize the community responsibility. It is carried out thru the cooperation of public and private organizations, state and local health officials, extension divisions of universities, and all types of local and national child-welfare institutions. One of the definite results has been an increasing realization of the importance of public-health nursing and of the spread of knowledge of proper methods of maternity and infant care. Follow-up work carried on by the different communities has resulted in many cases in definite improvement in local conditions—the employment of more public-health nurses, organization of infant-welfare stations or free clinics, or provision for medical and dental examinations in the public schools.

It is generally recognized that certain groups of children—dependents, defectives, and delinquents—are in need of special care and attention on the part of the state. Three studies of mentally defective children have been made by the Children's Bureau. Two of them, *A Social Study of Mental Defectives in Newcastle County, Delaware*, already issued, and a *Study of Mental Defectives in Sussex County, Delaware*, practically completed, have been carried on in cooperation with the United States Public Health Service. A study of state agencies caring for dependent children is planned. The problem of juvenile delinquency has been taken up from two points of view. Studies of juvenile delinquency in rural New York and of children before the courts in Connecticut are in the press, and a general survey of methods followed by juvenile courts is being made by means of questionnaires sent

to judges and probation officers thruout the country. A brief report on *Juvenile Delinquency in the European Countries at War* has also been prepared.

One of the especially important aspects of child conservation has to do with the problem of child labor. In the legal significance of the word a child is an infant until he is twenty-one years old, and until our children have reacht manhood and womanhood, during *all* the years of physical and mental change and development, they are entitled to the special protection of the state. With the idea of fixing a certain minimum standard of child protection for the entire country, below which no state should be allowed to fall, the Congress of the United States in 1916 passed the United States Child Labor Act, effective September 1, 1917. In April, 1917, an appropriation was made for the necessary preliminary work and for the enforcement of the act, and a new division, the Child Labor Division, with the duty of enforcing it, was added to the Children's Bureau.

A good child-labor law should fix for all children permitted to work three minimum standards—a standard of age, a standard of health, and a standard of education—and it should determine hours and conditions of work. The United States Child Labor Law did two of these things for a certain group of children. It prohibited the shipment in interstate or foreign commerce of the products of factories, mills, workshops, manufacturing establishments, canneries, mines, and quarries, if within thirty days prior to their removal the age and hour standards fixed by the law had been violated. These standards were not so high as those of a number of states. Moreover, many large child-employing occupations, such as store, messenger, and office work, usually regulated by state laws, were entirely unaffected by the act. On the other hand, they were higher in certain respects than the standards of the laws in many states.

In the summer of 1917 a test case was brought in the Western Judicial District of North Carolina, and the United States judge of that district enjoined the district attorney from enforcing the law on the ground that it was unconstitutional. This decision applied only to the Western Judicial District of North Carolina. An appeal was carried to the United States Supreme Court, and during the nine months while a decision was pending the act was enforst in the other parts of the country. The experience of these nine months showed that the act was enforceable, that it protected many children unprotected by state laws, that it was possible to obtain the cooperation of state and local officials, and that the federal act was a lever by which state standards could be raised. On June 3, 1918, the act was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court by a vote of five to four.

Various methods of meeting the emergency caused by this decision of the Supreme Court have been suggested, and a new measure will no doubt be framed in the near future.

The United States Child Labor Law, however, toucht only one of the many legislative aspects of the problem of child conservation, all of which, with this exception—and this for the present—are in the hands of the individual states. Each state has so large and complicated a body of laws affecting children that it is difficult for even a person very much interested in the subject to know exactly what are the laws which are helping to conserve—or to destroy—child life in his own state. In order to make this knowledge available the Children's Bureau is preparing a complete reference index of all the laws in each state relating to child welfare. For about half the states this index has been completed. A copy of the index for any state will be sent, upon application, to anyone to whom it will be of use. It is especially valuable to persons working for the revision and codification of their state laws relating to children. This index covers laws relating to parent and child, offenses against the child, health and sanitation, recreation, child labor and school attendance, and laws relating to defective, delinquent, and dependent children.

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—Alice L. Harris, assistant superintendent of schools.....Worcester, Mass.
Vice-President—Dora M. Moore, principal, Corona School.....Denver, Colo.
Secretary—Alfie O. Freel, principal, Linnton School.....Portland, Ore.

FIRST SESSION—Tuesday Forenoon, July 2, 1918

The meeting was called to order by President Alice L. Harris at nine o'clock in Music Hall, Carnegie Institute.

After patriotic singing led by Frederick L. Davies, Westinghouse High School, Pittsburgh, Pa., the following papers under the topic "A New Curriculum for a New Democracy" were given:

"The Body a Fit and Perfect Tool"—Katherine D. Blake, principal, Public School No. 6, New York, N.Y.

"Manual Arts for Social Needs and Daily Living"—John G. Thompson, principal, Fitchburg Normal School, Fitchburg, Mass.

"The Demands for a More Vital Academic Contest"—Lotus D. Hoffman, dean, College of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

Discussion—William M. Davidson, superintendent of schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.; W. T. Bawden, specialist in industrial education, Bureau of Education; Otis W. Caldwell, director, Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

SECOND SESSION—Wednesday Forenoon, July 3, 1918

The following program was presented:

"Training for Social Adjustment—the Citizens of the Future"—John W. Withers, superintendent of schools, St. Louis, Mo.; Mary D. Bradford, superintendent of schools, Kenosha, Wis., took the place of John W. Withers on the program.

"A Better Appreciation of Cultural Values"—Nathan C. Schaeffer, state superintendent of public instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

Discussion: "A Better Appreciation of Ethical Values"—A. R. Brubacher, president, State College for Teachers, Albany, N.Y.; Mary D. Bradford, superintendent of schools, Kenosha, Wis.; N. H. Chancy, superintendent of schools, Youngstown, Ohio; Iva Lowther Peters, fellow in sociology, Clark University, Worcester, Mass.

THIRD SESSION—Thursday Afternoon, July 4, 1918

Joint session with the Kindergarten Department and the School Garden Association.

The following papers were given under the topic, "Americanization":

"The Kindergarten as a Factor in Americanization"—Caroline Hedger, National Kindergarten Association, New York, N.Y.

"Spoken English as a Factor in Americanization"—Earl Barnes, lecturer, Philadelphia, Pa.

"Americanization thru School Gardens"—Van Everie Kilpatrick, president, School Garden Association, New York, N.Y.

Discussion—David B. Johnson, president, Winthrop College, Rock Hill, S.C.

Discussion of Entire Program—G. Stanley Hall, president, Clark University, Worcester, Mass.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

MANUAL ARTS FOR SOCIAL NEEDS AND FOR DAILY LIVING

JOHN G. THOMPSON, PRINCIPAL, FITCHBURG NORMAL SCHOOL, FITCHBURG, MASS.

The war has taught us already that no future program in any line of work can be arranged without considering the changes which the war has caused and is likely to cause. The titanic struggle has already created a new order in government, a new order in business, and a new order in the home and in the life of the individual. It must bring about in the coming years a new order in the school. The new program of school work will recognize the following facts that have been made clear as never before by conditions due to this great world-crisis:

1. The primary importance of constructive ability, and the secondary importance of books and book knowledge.

2. Freedom in a democracy means freedom to serve, and each individual must serve and conserve for the benefit of all. We learn to serve only by serving, and not by talking or reading about it.

3. Every human being demands instinctively and persistently an opportunity for self-expression. The schools must guide the pupil to the field where he can find himself. This must often be learned by trial and error, a plan that has been too much derided. The most efficient military people the world has ever known are learning through trial and error that they cannot rule the world.

4. A terrible world-catastrophe has been possible chiefly because peoples do not know one another and one another's aims and work. Sympathy and brotherly love based upon understanding are necessary for the peace and safety of the world. Let the pupil work in many fields of world-work, and he will, in finding himself, find sympathy with all workers.

More of constructive work must be introduced into the elementary public schools to make the schools miniature reproductions of the world-life. School work should be proportioned as work is proportioned in real life, until such a time as the pupil can intelligently determine what special line of activity he intends to follow.

If a child is to serve when older, he should begin to serve as young as possible, helping of course only in such lines of work as will be pleasant and profitable to him. This is no argument or suggestion of argument for child labor, as the term child labor is usually employed; but the child must be allowed to try many lines of constructive work in order that he may express himself thru doing, making, creating something in the creation of which he takes pride and pleasure.

Professor Irving Fisher has recently called attention to the fact that much of the unhappiness among the working classes and much of the social unrest are due to the fact that workers have no opportunity for self-expression. They are simply cogwheels in the vast system of machinery. The constructive work in the school should give the child a knowledge of some form of useful employment thru which he may express himself—in a vocation, or in an avocation if his vocation does not provide for such expression.

Every child should do not only many forms of the world's work, but even some of the drudgery of the world, in order that he may have sympathy and understanding with unskilled labor, just as in the army camps today wealthy privates who are college graduates spend hours in peeling potatoes, washing dishes, doing janitor work, police work, and many forms of drudgery, and thru this experience become better citizens in a democracy.

The entire argument is based upon the idea that the true school is a school where all activities are *real* and prepare for democratic citizenship, and that the manual arts should be equally real, meeting needs of the school, the home, and the individual.

THE BODY A FIT AND PERFECT TOOL

KATHERINE DEVEREUX BLAKE, NEW YORK, N.Y.

Three hundred thousand children die each year in our prosperous land before they are five years old. We all know this, but the figures are so huge that we shut our eyes and think of this mortality as necessary and not our affair. It is trite to say that a soldier in the trenches has a better chance of life than a baby; but would we feel so satisfied to look the other way and forget, if one were to say that a soldier in the trenches has a better chance of coming thru the war uninjured and unmaimed than a child entering school has of going thru the elementary-school course without injury? Yet when you count injured eyes and twisted backs, flat feet and decayed teeth, it will be readily seen that this statement is undoubtedly true.

The most conservative estimates say that the eyesight of one-third of the pupils is injured by the time the eighth year of school is reacht. Statistics of curved backs, of indigestion because of hasty meals, of retarded brains because tasks were not fitted to the child's mentality, of flat foot and diseased lungs because of insufficient physical training, of the results of neglected adenoids, tonsils, teeth, and nutrition, are not yet obtainable. Some day these facts will be studied out, and then we may awake to our responsibilities.

At present we accept without study the archaic school furniture, and so sacrifice our children on the altar of the janitor and the incompetent teacher. Fixt furniture was specially designed for the latter. Chairs screwed to

the floor cannot be thrown at the instructor who fails to interest. Every factory pays more attention to protecting the eyesight of its employes than we do to the care of the precious eyes of children. Daily, teachers complain of work ill done, without realizing that work cannot be well done by eyes that cannot see.

Each year thousands of children under sixteen drop out of school and into the labor market before they have completed the elementary-school course; into a labor market that is perpetually hungry for the ignorant and unskilled, to whom it can offer wages that to a child seem large but lead nowhere. Did I say lead nowhere? All too frequently the blind-alley trade leads straight to unemployment, to the street, to jail.

The last item on any political budget to receive increast appropriation is the request for school funds. We cannot afford school lunches. But we cheerfully pay the cost of our jails, feeling thankful that the "wretches" whom we should have saved are shut up and society is safe. This altho it is estimated that it costs $15,000,000 more each year to arrest, convict, and care for the American youth under twenty-five in prison than it does to educate all the children in the United States!

A little less money for prisons and a little more for hygienic work in our schools might in a few years find us all healthier and happier.

Perhaps when teachers realize that they *cannot teach a hungry child* they may rebel at being expected to perform this impossible feat.

When teachers are politically awake and realize their responsibility in caring for the children we shall have well-nourisht children who will be trained physically to counteract the dangers of education; hygienically designed furniture will obviate some of the difficulty, unglazed paper and proper print will reduce eyestrain, magazine textbooks up to the minute in information will remove much of the danger of communicable disease, and camp schools in the summer time will give a new viewpoint to the children of the city slum. Pupils so trained will develop into vigorous youth, brain and body alike ready for any service that may come to them.

Let us all work for class consciousness and class power among teachers, so that this happy day may come soon to the children of our fair land.

TRAINING FOR SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT—THE CITIZENS OF THE FUTURE

MARY D. BRADFORD, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, KENOSHA, WIS.

There seems to be no doubt that Americanization is one of the big problems of the war, and that it will loom up still larger during the reconstruction period awaiting us, we sincerely hope, at no distant day.

Whether the matter we are discussing today, social adjustment, is a part of the Americanization movement or includes it, or whether these two

terms are synonymous, I have not had time to find out, but I am going to assume that they are related.

I am working in an industrial city where Americanization is now the great problem. When I emphasize, by giving it first mention, the importance of attention to the children of the foreign-born, and of those from the lower strata of our social whole, it is because I believe in the principle that my community or any community, or that combination of communities which is the state, or that combination of states which is the nation, can claim no higher social level than is found when we strike an average of all its constituents; or to use the words of Judd and Bagley in an article in the *School Review* for May, "Effective democracy implies the highest possible level of trained and informed intelligence in all the members of the democratic group."

This training and informing is a process that takes time; these masses of unassimilated foreign-born people are not to be brought to an appreciation of democratic ideals in a few months. But now that we are really in earnest about this thing it will go forward more rapidly than it has in the past, and this awakening may be reckoned as another important by-product of the war. In fact, our indifference to the most important part of the Americanization process, that of using and understanding the English language, has been so pronounst that we sometimes find even the third generation from the foreign land still foreign.

In many localities the important question is not whether German shall be taught, but whether English shall be spoken.

One of the most important planks in the Americanization program must be the Americanization of the homes. We cannot expect to Americanize the child very rapidly when he spends the greater part of his time in a foreign home environment. The foreign-born father, for industrial or business purposes, endeavors early to learn English; the mother feels no such incentive. To help this condition social workers of ability and sympathetic understanding can find no better field for their endeavors than to establish direct relations with these mothers in the homes and teach them the English language and American ideals of right living.

After the appreciation and use of English, the first thing to be considered is the formation of right health habits, and the finding of an effective method of getting the health lessons given in the schools across to the homes.

The Hutchin's "Code of Morals," designed for use in character training of children by teachers and parents, supports this position. Its simple preamble runs thus: "Boys and girls who are good Americans try to become strong and useful, that our country may become ever greater and better. Therefore, they obey the laws of right living which the best Americans have always obeyed."

These laws are then enumerated and the first one mentioned is the law of health. Thus this famous, prize-winning code supports the contention

that running thru the school program from start to finish there should be health lessons. I believe that the effectiveness of these lessons should be measured by the improvement in the hygienic habits of the children. The right motivation of this work is a most worthy object of endeavor for any teacher or supervisor.

It has been found helpful to give children a standing on their monthly report cards expressing the judgment of the teacher on the success of the child in actually living up to the part he knows in the care of himself—cleanliness of person and of clothing, orderliness and cleanliness as pertaining to his school belongings. I have been guiding a movement of this sort for eight years and have found that while it is artificial to a certain extent, as all expedients are that use incentives instead of real motives, much good has resulted from it. For want of a better term, "personal appearance" was adopted to designate this factor of the educational program, and my effort with teachers has been directed toward bringing them to feel that their success in developing in their pupils a regard for health and decency is of more importance than arithmetic and must be just as regularly attended to. I have emphasized cleanliness as measured by the soap-and-water standard. Cleanliness in a wider sense must be included in this teaching.

It is only when we compare this sort of practical, vital work with what used to be considered the proper teaching of hygiene that we realize the progress that has been made with this phase of education.

Next to health lessons comes the course in citizenship, because to make our country ever greater and better we must have not only strength but usefulness, as our morals code says.

Our ideas of school discipline have undergone as great change as has our teaching of hygiene and civics. A well-conducted school city has, it seems to me, great possibilities. In such an organization citizenship in many of its aspects can be demonstrated and practist; and there habits of responsibility, self-control, kindness, loyalty, and others possest by really good citizens in all times and especially needed by the citizens of the near future may find opportunity for development.

Our ideas of freedom are undergoing a change, and this change the Boy Scout and the Girl Scout organizations are promoting. We used to think that a man was a good citizen if he did nothing that was harmful, but now such a person is not necessarily a good citizen; he can prove his right to that honorable title only by showing what he has done or is doing to help others.

Every time children and young people come together to cooperate mutually for some end, they are being trained for freedom in the right way.

I shall close this paper with a quotation which seems to me to embody the spirit of social adjustment. It is taken from the Children's Code of Morals, already twice referred to, a code which, we trust, is destined to be

a patriotic guide for American children generally, and to furnish teachers with organized material for their work.

If I try simply to be loyal to my family, I may be disloyal to my school. If I try simply to be loyal to my school, I may be disloyal to my town, my state, and my country. If I try simply to be loyal to my town, state, and country, I may be disloyal to humanity. I will try above all things else to be loyal to humanity; then I shall surely be loyal to my country, my state, and my town, to my school, and to my family.

A BETTER APPRECIATION OF CULTURAL VALUES

NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, HARRISBURG, PA.

In times of war the term which is upon the lips of everybody is the word "efficiency." If efficiency is strest exclusively in our school systems, we land in what the Germans call *Kultur*, which is an educational product very different from culture. *Kultur* aims to fit the individual for some type of useful service to the state. It does not inquire whether the service will enable the individual to make the most of his God-given powers and possibilities. It degrades the individual into a mere means to an end, the end being outside of his immortal nature. Culture, on the other hand, seeks to make the most of the individual and places the aim of his education in the harmonious development of all his faculties and possibilities. One claim which a human being has upon immortality is found in the fact that no life on this earth suffices to develop all the capabilities of which every personality feels itself possest. Culture emphasizes the things of the mind and the higher life. It seeks to beget the ability to enjoy the true, the beautiful, and the good, wherever these may be found. It consists in the ability to think the best thoughts of the best men, as these are enshrined in literature. Culture does not neglect nor overlook the personal relations. That which makes life worth living is not found in science and literature, important as these are in the progress of humanity. That which makes life worth living is found in the personal relations which a human being sustains to his fellows and to his God, in love of kindred and friends, in love of home and country, in love of truth and of God. It is these things that are likely to be ignored in time of war. "When Mars rages, the humanities do not flourish." Heroic virtues are developt during periods of national struggle. Optimistic views of life characterize the literature evolved during periods of stress and war, but if the things of the mind and the higher life are not cherisht by the soldier and the sailor, the vices of human nature gradually choke the virtues and leave the individual poorer than before.

Some time ago a naval officer gave me a new point of view. He said: "After you have trained a soldier down to the point where he will run a bayonet into a human being, you must expect him to do some other things which you do not like." The culture of the benevolent affections is

difficult in time of war. Never having been a soldier, I cannot speak from experience concerning the emotions which are stirred by battle. The ruthless cruelty of the foe must beget hatred and loathing. The Red Cross begets different emotions while ministering to suffering allies and enemies, regardless of race, creed, color, or nationality. The activities of the Red Cross remind one of the difference in the law of love under the old and the new dispensation. In the Old Testament the measure of brotherly love was, "Love thy neighbor as thyself." But the author of the new dispensation sets a higher standard. "Greater love hath no man than this, that a man lay down his life for his friends."

Is this not exemplified over and over again in the sacrifices upon the field of battle? He was willing to die that others might attain everlasting life. That is the spirit of the Red Cross and of the Christian soldier. In the trenches and upon the high seas our boys have offered up their lives for others. The contemplation of such service and struggle and sacrifice should assist not merely in the culture of the heroic emotions but also in the cultivation of the noblest virtues and affections which can find lodgment in the heart of man.

DISCUSSION: A BETTER APPRECIATION OF ETHICAL VALUES

A. R. Brubacher, president, State College for Teachers, Albany, N.Y.—Education is to my mind best described as a process of adjustment to the environment. Since our environment is, among other things, a democracy, our education is concerned with adjustment to that social environment which is peculiar to a democracy. The ethical values of which I am askt to speak grow out of the distinctive obligations imposed on its citizens by a democracy, right conduct in the citizen implying that he functions properly to his environment. We want to know, therefore, whether our educational scheme prepares our children to function adequately to their democratic environment.

Our list of duties as citizens constitutes the ritual of democracy. Out of this ritual grow our ethical obligations. I find here the bone and marrow of our democratic clan life. Our social sins have been largely sins of ignorance. Now it is the business of education to adjust the youth to this clan life, with its complicated privileges and responsibilities. Human conduct is ethical or unethical according as it functions or fails to function with society. For us the duties of citizenship are distinctive; the responsibilities are likewise distinctive, both duties and responsibilities contrasting strongly with those under other forms of society. Our ethical code is therefore equally distinctive. Its keynote is loyalty; its foundation is intelligence; its guaranties are social responsiveness, self-restraint, and sound judgment. These are the fundamentals of right conduct in a democracy.

Purpose is, of course, the chief determinant of conduct, and purpose is determined by knowledge. "To know the good is to do it." Socrates puts it thus: "No man voluntarily pursues evil, or that which he thinks to be evil."

It is the business of the elementary school to give that minimum of information by which purpose may have the necessary basis of knowledge. This may certainly include the facts pertaining to personal hygiene, physical fitness, vocational efficiency, the common courtesies of life, duty to others, loyalty to the state; that is, the school can give that knowledge which tends to eliminate malevolence and positively increases the benevolent purposes of the citizen. Under our democracy a benevolent purpose is essential to right conduct

The second determinant element of conduct grows out of the first. It is the will to obedience. Right conduct can come only when the purpose is benevolent and the will is disciplined sufficiently to act accordingly. A disciplined will means resolution, that is, the will of the individual must be socialized before it will yield habitually conduct that is ethical.

Conduct is a resultant of judgment exercised between conflicting motives. This is the third element. Even where the purpose is benevolent, where the will is resolute and the knowledge adequate, there may be a sharp clash between motives. Fine distinctions are often necessary; effects may be far removed; abstract principles may be involved in the decision—all of which places a burden on the judgment. That it may be sound, unerring, and immediate, it must be exercised and guided in the early years thru right choices, until it becomes habitually right, instinctively accurate.

The social mind, the fourth element, is not usually a native endowment. Selfishness is a natural quality and in its natural state is not immoral. It is a necessary incident of the self-preservation instinct. But the instinct must be socialized in order to reach its best development. Self-interest, merged in community interest, becomes a socialized selfishness and shades almost imperceptibly into altruism. Education is the medium. When the needs of humanity grip and urge to service, we have the social mind, which is an antecedent to moral conduct.

The spirit of humaneness is the fifth element of conduct. Its opposite, cruelty, is a characteristic of the animal which is instinct in us. Children are proverbially cruel. Witness the torture of insects and animals; and witness the inhumanity of child to child. Every teacher is familiar with this native inhumanity. Humaneness is easily cultivated; it is one of the first flowers of culture and refinement. In the school it is that determinant of ethical conduct which may be cultivated from the kindergarten on.

The method of moral or ethical instruction in the elementary school is self-evident. Here as elsewhere the child will learn by doing. Thruout his school life the child frequently confronts conflicting motives; he must make daily choices; he exercises judgments; his rights conflict with the rights of playmates; the needs of helpless animals come to his attention; duty to parents presses on his time; duty to the community thru channels of public health and public safety attracts his attention. These and other motives daily exercise his will, and it is the chief business of his teacher to guide the budding personality of the child along right lines of conduct, bringing to bear on him all the social restraints, and making valid the social sanctions of moral conduct by full justification of each to the child mind. Out of such teaching will come that discrimination which is the basis of ethical conduct.

The personal contact between pupil and teacher is of course first in importance. Whenever the will of a cultured, moral teacher, comes into gripping contact with the will of the pupil, an ethical product is the inevitable result. The discipline of the schoolroom, playground, schoolyard, and street is the ethical laboratory where conduct is a continual experiment and habit a perpetual and final result. The teacher is naturally the hero (or heroine) of the pupil. His conduct becomes the standard for the child. His judgments, his ideals, his aspirations, will magnetize the child mind. In the personality of the teacher, therefore, we have an ethical force of great moment. We have long glibly recognized this fact, but we have gone forward, placing over our schools young men and women whose personal qualities were frequently colorless and weak, sometimes negative, occasionally immoral. The schools of America must safeguard this ethical factor for the sake of our democracy.

I want to give all possible emphasis to the superior importance of conduct over ethical formulas, of concrete problems of behavior over general precepts. I believe that the American public school is particularly strong in this respect. The important matter is that the pupil does not merely receive moral edicts by authority but shares in the ethical life, in its conflicting motives and its judgments, and writes its results daily in indelible lines on his character.

N. H. CHANEY, superintendent of schools, Youngstown, Ohio.—This splendid appeal for a better appreciation of ethical values in education, that it may the better determine and control all forms and phases of human life and labor, confirms anew our thought and faith that the most important, practical, valuable, and even precious thing about men, as individuals and nations, is just their moral quality; their view and treatment of the moral element in their own and other's lives.

Certain it is that no man is of prime, paramount, and permanent importance who does not import from God, in his entire life, a strong and steadfast moral quality, no matter how wise and rich he may be. No man is practical *as a man* who does not practice the moral virtues, no matter how skilfully he may practice a trade or a profession. No man can be truly valuable to society, business, or government, who does not always move in a fixt moral purpose, however cultured and refined his manners may be. No man can be truly precious to himself or to anybody else, nor be loved and welcomed even by his own kith and kin, who is known to violate the moral virtues. And this is true not only of individuals but of nations also.

Hence it is that moral quality tests and determines real human worth, both in being and in doing. Moral personality is life's first value and security, and therefore it should be the first aim and end of all formal education. First a moral man, then a scholar, and then a craftsman. The moral rank is the first and the highest rank with God, and it must be such with men and nations in all their stretch and training for efficiency, if ever this dark, sad world is to be filled with light, peace, joy, and permanent prosperity.

Let knowledge grow from more to more,
But more of reverence in us dwell,
That mind and soul according well,
May make one music as before,
But vaster.

And the swell of this vaster music, this larger harmony in humanity, must be more on the side of reverence than of knowledge. Surely the schools are not to decrease their light of knowledge but to increase their reverence for God and humanity, until hate and strife shall yield their thrones to love and saving service.

Germany is a bright and shining example, tho now justly repulsive and rejected, of how schools and schoolmasters can determine the mental and moral life and activities of a nation by dealing with its children. They can put love or hate into heads, hearts, and hands. They can make hate use strong heads and hands to hurt and harm for selfish ends. They can also teach love to use skilled minds and hands to heal and help and save for all men's sake. They can make children predatory demons, or princes of peace, prosperity, and world-wide human welfare. Thus teachers are the chief and choice determinants of human qualities and ambitions. Let the people look well to the kind of teachers their children have!

Now to conserve the highest welfare of the people in the present changing order in education, teachers must deal more with life and less with textbooks; they must possess and radiate life, moral life, more abundantly. By a more democratic and less autocratic rule, by more love and less police force, they must lead their pupils into a better appreciation of the ethical values in all life and learning; into such a commitment of their wills to moral qualities that they shall be prouder to be right, just, and bravely good than to hold any rank or emolument that might be otherwise gained. When I long for a model of the moral teacher, with a winning democratic soul of service, I can but think of Dante's description of the saintly women whom he saw in his vision of paradise. After meeting several of them he sings,

Another of those splendors
Approacht me, and its will to pleasure me
It signified by brightening outwardly,
As one delighted to do good:
Became a thing transplendent in my sight
As a prize ruby smitten by the sun.

And of Beatrice he says, "She smiled so joyously that God seemed in her countenance to rejoice."

Such radiant souls, shining with the moral light of God and transforming all they touch by their own resistless goodness and delight in doing good, belong not only to a paradise of vision but also to that paradise of human childhood, the public school, where a world's destiny is being shaped and assured in the minds and hearts of happy children. Teachers can make ethical values spread and prevail, if they will! An appreciation of ethical values and their application to human need is possible to all peoples everywhere, thru their schools and teachers, if these vital forces will only follow and enforce the light and love of the unselfish soul—God's light set in humanity to reveal the way to highest human worth and world-wide brotherhood.

Then let reverence as a moral splendor lead wisdom as a giant servant over all the stormy face of the earth, and the golden harvest of this fruitful twain will cover the lands with peace and plenty. And joy and gladness, good-will, and trustful fellowship shall reign.

THE KINDERGARTEN AS A FACTOR IN AMERICANIZATION

CAROLINE HEDGER, REPRESENTING THE NATIONAL KINDERGARTEN ASSOCIATION, NEW YORK, N.Y.

Last year in Boston at the International Kindergarten Union I took somewhat the attitude of "wake up," but that is not the attitude I want to take today. This Americanization movement looks to me like a boy sliding down hill. At the top he needs a push, and after he gets over the edge he needs careful steering. That is the point we have reacht in this movement. The American people have suddenly become wide awake to the fact that we have foreign neighbors, and that they are living with us. We did not know it until the war came, but we know it now, and large numbers of people who feel patriotic go out and organize an Americanization committee, hoping that they can be of real service to their country.

All this effort and this sudden awakening are very hopeful, but there are one or two points of danger that I want to emphasize before I begin on the hopeful side. One of those points, and I think the most dangerous point, is the force element.

We have a man in my town who takes himself down to Washington, with what authority I know not, and says, "These people have got to speak English. They have got to be forst to speak English." If any of you have any question as to the danger of this point of view, I wish you could get hold of some intelligent Danish people; meet them face to face and heart to heart. Their Schleswig-Holstein was grabbed in 1860, grabbed as was Belgium in 1914, and to this day Danes are deported from Schleswig-Holstein because they dare to speak their native language. That is the Prussian oppression method. I want you to talk with those Danes about the results of prohibiting the speaking of their native language. I want to get the United States away from that method of stopping the use of foreign languages. It is not sound; it is not necessary.

I hold that there is only one place where there can be an excuse for the use of force in compelling the speaking of English. Ford has reduced the accidents in his automobile plant 54 per cent since he started his English school.

I hold that industry has some right to demand English as a factor in preserving the life and limb of the worker, but as a society we have no right to demand and to force the speaking of English. Why? Because it is our attitude in years past that keeps the foreigners from speaking English today. If fifteen years ago we had waked up to the fact that they were here, if we had given them night schools (I am speaking of communities outside the large cities, of course), if we had given them any American contact, today they would be speaking English without compulsion; therefore it is altogether wrong to apply force to our foreign neighbors; the force should be applied to ourselves, that our hearts may become right, that we may have the right attitude, and that we may see the possibility of friendship and the right way to spread the ideals of democracy that have been given us so richly.

There has been considered in this great convention a plan which I hope will work out well, a plan for a great drive for Americanization. It has been quite thoroughly discust, I believe.

This drive should be in areas where some agency is giving the foreign neighbor an understanding of our language and ideals; otherwise the drive should be into the pockets of the Americans to produce more kindergartens, more night schools, more agencies that can reach the foreign neighbor in some sane way.

At the moment the great need is for trained teachers, and I am here this afternoon to try to enrol you in this kind of teaching. Before we can get the kind of teachers that we need for the guidance of this movement we must rid the minds of the American people of two serious misconceptions. The first one of these is that anybody can teach English to foreign adults. The other day I met a woman, a superior type, a teacher of English, who wisht to get into the work in Chicago in the factories. We need teachers in Chicago, and I referred her to the supervisor. She called the supervisor over the telephone, and the supervisor asked her several questions as to her training, etc.; but when the supervisor asked, "Have you ever had experience with the foreign neighbor?" her tone stiffened: "I am a teacher of English, and when you have the method it can be applied anywhere."

The technique of teaching English to high-school pupils, or to normal-school pupils, or to college students is not the technique that is necessary for the foreign neighbor, and English cannot be applied anywhere without special training.

The second misconception that is so widely spread that I must speak of it is that the foreign neighbor must have for a teacher someone who speaks his own language. He may need someone who speaks his language to give

him some cultural ideas and to get some message to him quickly, like the Liberty Loan, but the foreign neighbor should learn idiomatic English.

When we send our children to high-priced colleges, the colleges advertise in the process of getting our money that they have foreign-born teachers of foreign languages. If it is so important to have our children taught foreign languages by foreign-born teachers, why should we reverse the procedure with our foreign people? With those teachers they do not get idiomatic English. They get a translation method. They are not, except with the rare teacher, taught to think in English.

My kindergarten friends, it is because you have such an unusual equipment that I am appealing to you. You are fitted for this work because you are free from that disease so common in America—the worship of the book. As far as I have observed kindergartners, they are never tied to the book, and if we can get away from the book we shall get along faster with the foreigner. I would not cut him off from the daily paper or from any reading he enjoys, but book knowledge is not the fundamental thing at the moment. The real need is to give him enough English to enable him *to speak* about his job, to get around his town, and to absorb the ideals of democracy. They have to be taught first by word of mouth, so to speak.

You have always recognized in your relationship to the children the importance of games and amusements. That we have absolutely overlookt with the foreigners. I think that the only way to give the primary lessons to the foreign neighbor is by object teaching. The first effective night school that I saw was run by a kindergartner in Palmerton, Pa. She used only object teaching. Her first lesson was water, pan, and a piece of soap. She taught not only the words pan, soap, and water, but she taught the ethics of washing the hands. And it is along these lines that we must have a special technique for this style of teaching.

You have always freed the little child from fear, and that is one of the most important factors with the foreign adults. A foreigner comes to this country with hopes of better living and higher wages, but he sometimes becomes very much afraid. Especially is this true of the woman. She is timid; you cannot send her a written letter to meet you at the schoolhouse and have her meet you there. She fears your motive. When you get her there you must free her from the effect of fear. You kindergartners are particularly able to do that, but it takes technique and time and patience.

You have always put the little child into group action, and that is what the foreign neighbors need; not that they are without groups, but because they have been in groups by themselves. They are not a part of American groups. That is what is worrying us now. But you could not expect them to sit alone in their little kitchens or at foreign lodges and imbibe American ideals, could you? No, that must come from cooperation by and with Americans.

You have always recognized the gifts of your children. You are always sending them home with little gifts. That is exactly what we need with the foreign neighbor.

I went back to Europe once third class. There were no other American-born people in that section of the ship, and I met a man who was such a striking illustration of our waste of the gifts of the neighbors that I am always reminded of him when I speak on this topic. There was going back on that trip a Yiddish poet, who offered to give me his book, but as I did not read Yiddish I was compelled like most Americans to decline his gift. He spoke very little English, but he told me that he had been in this country several years. What was he doing? Trying to make himself into a book-keeper. He had failed, and that poet was going back a broken-hearted, disappointed man because we were not ready to take his gift. And it is so all over this country; we have these people with their wonderful training from all over the world, and we recognize it not at all. We turn their gifts aside, and do you wonder they become alienated, separated from us?

We want for this work the kindergartner who is in dead earnest, who is honest. We want the kindergartner who understands the material that we have to work with. You have the machinery right in your hands. You are the most exceptional group in that way. You have in your mothers' meeting the thing at your hand. The mothers' meeting has limitless possibilities for national service. Your acquaintance with that foreign mother, I believe, must be slightly different from that of the past. You have tried to give all to that foreign mother instead of taking some of her gifts. I think I have observed in kindergarten work one point in this mother plan, and that is that you have focust on that mother as the mother of the individual child. You must, however, look at her as a factor in our democracy, a part of the community, especially in states where women have the vote. You cannot afford to consider her only as an individual to work with for the good of a single child. She is a much greater factor. You must realize that she has a responsibility outside of being the mother of her child. My own responsibility of voting is as much as I can master. We Americans need help; how much more must you help these foreign women. I think a democracy is not the easiest type of government in the world. That individual responsibility for right or for wrong doing that is exprest in the ballot I hold to be one of the great factors in the onward movement, and our foreign neighbors must be helpt to see that.

We are teaching the foreign women all sorts of interesting things in Chicago. Of course it is not easy to teach all of them to read. Many of the women are illiterates, and adult illiterates are extremely difficult to reach. We go into the factory and teach them to make apple sauce, and they eat the apple sauce with their sandwiches. It helps to make the sandwich more palatable, and we teach English to the women while they eat. Then we make jelly out of the apple peelings. That is food conservation. Then

we help them with the marketing, and I know a group of sixty who are so keen that they tell the teacher if a vegetable has declined in price between two lessons.

The foreign women are anxious to help. They are interested in the baby. The foreign baby is an ever present problem in this country, and the mothers are delighted to have the lessons on the simple care of the baby. At our house of correction, our city jail, we have four classes in English a week for foreign women. Classes are held in the room where mass is held on Sunday, and there is a broad rail that separates the place for the altar from the large room. One day out there one class was playing store. There was no difficulty about English being spoken in that store. The teacher had on this broad rail things cut out of the advertising pages of magazines and other sample things spread out. Those were the things that were for sale, and she had paper money. When she sold thread she did not sell a spool of thread. She ran a piece of black thread through a sheet of paper markt, "This is black thread, it costs five cents." The woman took the sheet away and brought it back with her copy the next time. I do not admit that the foreign woman does not want to speak English. If she does not want to, it is our fault.

In closing, won't you come in, won't you get this technique of teaching foreign adults? Won't you use your wonderful kindergarten principles and apply them with dignity to the grown man and woman?

SPOKEN ENGLISH AS A FACTOR IN AMERICANIZATION

EARL BARNES, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

As one of the by-products of the present war there is now a great outcry against the use of the German language in the United States. Many of our elementary and high schools have cut it out of the curriculum. In some of our colleges and universities it will not be taught during the coming year. The Governor of Pennsylvania, in an address before the National Education Association, recently declared that in his judgment no foreigner should be allowed to remain in the United States more than five years if during that time he had not learned the English language. On the same day a well-known educator, speaking at a university banquet, said that the time had come for suppressing all publications in this country not printed in the English language, and for insisting that all religious exercises should be conducted in English.

Much of this feeling rests in the belief that the words of two languages are equivalent to each other, and that shifting one's daily language involves simply the trouble of learning the new one. Of course a person can learn new languages well enough so that he can use them for reading or conversation, as he might learn any other new matter. But to

substitute a new language for an old one in the affairs of daily life is quite another matter.

Much of the difficulty in understanding this matter is due to our failure to realize how language has been formed, and what the language which the person learns in childhood does to him. Before animals and men develop language, impressions from the outside world pour into the neurons of the central nervous system, where they form memory images, or neuron patterns, in endless variety. These become associated in myriads of combinations, until the mind becomes clogged with its possessions. Animals early give up the quest for universal knowledge and confine themselves to the limited field of their necessities and warmest desires.

Man, however, invents a word for flying, feathered creatures which enables him to group all his experience with them under the one term "birds"; his experiences of heat he groups under "hot," and so, by classifying his almost infinite experiences, he brings them into order and is able to think about them; but not until these larger neuron patterns can be connected by words expressing general forms of action or being and limited by general forms of quality is any extended thinking possible.

Meantime, different races of men living under varied environment have developt widely different languages to meet their needs. Since language follows the development of a people, it is inevitable that the words of no two languages ever carry quite the same meaning. Thus the man who changes his native language has to change not only his mind but also his feeling and even the very organization of his brain, for the neuron patterns must always be modified and sometimes entirely remade.

And yet the need for a uniform national language is so great and its advantage to the individual so obvious that we seem justified even in forcing all those who desire to identify themselves with us and become citizens of the United States to learn to speak the English language. It will be well for us, however, to remember the vast difficulty involved in the change, and if our fellow-citizens of foreign origin wish to think and feel in their domestic relations, in their religion, and in all the intimacies of life, with the neuron patterns which have grown out of their national qualities and to which they have been habituated all their lives, they must be free to do so. There would be a great loss in human thinking and feeling if all the world thought with the same patterns, a loss not to be offset by any material advantages. Let us insist then that our fellow-citizens shall learn to speak English, but let us allow them to retain their native speech in their personal affairs and even to write it and perpetuate it in their families, if they can.

Regarding our own present determination not to learn German there may well be a difference of opinion. Something of the spirit of a people inheres in its language, and we do not want our youth to be in any degree affected by the spirit of modern Germany. At the same time German is the key to a vast literature and a great body of science which we shall need

increasingly in the future. Besides this, the new internationalism which must follow this war will inevitably drive us to live and trade with the German people. To neglect a great key to civilization because people of whom we disapprove use it may be foolish.

The advantages of being able to speak the language of the people among whom one lives are so obvious that it seems hardly necessary to enumerate them. In our modern, complex collective life a common spoken language is indispensable. To work, a man must be able to follow directions and to direct others. Buying and selling, getting positions and keeping them, filling positions where one must direct his fellows, banking and travel, all depend on understanding the spoken word.

Spoken English gives common ideas, and these give social feeling, political efficiency, and many of the supreme joys of life. If one can think of the chief executive of the nation only as "Kaiser" he cannot understand the relation which President Wilson bears to the American people. One who must translate can never touch the deeper soul of the people.

Politically it is necessary that where the people rule themselves they should understand not only themselves but also their neighbors with whom they have to live and act in common. Foreigners in America need good government even more than do the native-born, for corrupt government weighs more heavily on them than on us. Most of our foreigners have intelligence, and they probably desire good government as much as we do. And yet the foreign vote is always a danger in our midst and always must be so as long as it depends on interpreters for political information.

And meantime the state needs good citizens as much as the individual needs good government. It is true that modern nations must be unified if they are to be strong. But political unity may exist with wide differences in race, religion, or even in language, as is shown by Switzerland, where three races, speaking three languages and professing two religions, have long maintained a highly democratic form of government. There is one thing, and only one, which a nation must have if it is to be unified, and that is common ideas and ideals. A common language is extremely helpful in creating these, but it is not indispensable.

Our foreigners are unlike those conquered by the European states. They have come to us in recent times. They have come of their own free will, they need not remain unless they desire, and they need not become citizens of the United States unless they wish to do so. If they decide to identify themselves with us they will almost inevitably be driven to live disperst among us, and for economic, social, and political reasons they should know how to speak the English language. We must give them time, we must be patient, and we must be generous toward their native tongues. But before they receive the benefits of citizenship and assume its responsibilities they must prepare themselves to understand and to let us understand them.

AMERICANIZATION THRU SCHOOL GARDENS

VAN EVERIE KILPATRICK, PRESIDENT, SCHOOL GARDEN ASSOCIATION, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The first fight of the early American was food-getting. In that food-getting he became agricultural. The early American was not evolved suddenly. He developt thru this pastoral experience in grappling with the vast resources of a new continent. His struggles with the forest, his glimpses of the ever-widening sunset, and his mastery of nature in her rudiments were those things which gave us that striking type in human development, the American.

It is worth while noting that Americanization is not what many foreign observers tell us it is. It is not the ability to use the English language. That accomplishment is as much British as American. Emphasis upon the vernacular is an essential of all nationalism. Yet the ability to use the English language is essential to Americanization. This point is mentioned here because the recent propaganda for Americanization seems to have gone little farther than insisting on the vernacular. I take it that when we speak of Americanization we speak of that which characterizes an American, or the American people, as distinguisht from every other person or people.

I believe that it would surprise anyone to read a complete category of all the distinctively American qualities. I do not think that any such list has ever been written, but within the limits of this paper I should like to call your attention to a few Americanisms which appeal to me as the most priceless heritages that have ever come to any free people.

Conscientious integrity.—Possibly some would call this "simple honesty." It is honesty for honesty's sake. It is directly opposed to the Spartan honesty, the honesty of expediency.

Generations of fathers who could repeat to their sons and their grandsons the traditions of Washington and the cherry tree, and of Lincoln returning the widow's dime, bespeak an honesty so natural as to challenge the contemplation of all mankind. It matters little as to the historical acceptance of these incidents. The fact is that these simple dramas express the idealization of every true American household.

Free speech.—We can never have honesty in private life or in government until we have free speech. It was the one transcendent thought of our Revolutionary times. It was the dominant note in the Declaration of Independence and the Bill of Rights.

Permit me to add that I have failed to find and I may challenge anyone to show where these cardinal principles have not operated up to the present time. I am quite disposed to disagree with that body of people who set up the notion that there are times when these privileges should be abrogated. A free people never remained free by throwing off the exercise of freedom for any given time.

Continental isolation.—It is not easy to express this Americanism in two words. It was exprest by President James Monroe nearly one hundred years ago thus: "In principle, the American continents, by the free and independent position which they have assumed and maintained, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European power. And that any attempt on the part of any of the European powers to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere would be regarded by the United States as dangerous to our peace and safety, and would be opposed accordingly."

I question whether many of our people realize the momentous significance that these words have had in American history. By common acceptance they have become a part of our unwritten constitution. In enforcing this principle the United States practically assumed the protectorate over all the peoples living on the American continent. Our country has for nearly one hundred years, therefore, been the one sovereign country in America.

It is not within the scope of this paper to discuss our long list of worthwhile Americanisms: rotation in office, no third term for the president, free education, local-unit public schools, private business cooperations, a small standing army, social equalization, union of states, and free vocational choice.

What has the school garden to do with Americanization? If it be true that the many years of agricultural development which mark the growth and progress of our country were necessary for our social emancipation, then it seems to me undoubtedly worth while that this early industry be made a fundamental in our educational system.

The child who learns to cultivate a plant from seed to maturity is not only trained mentally and physically, but is trained in getting food. Better plants mean better methods, and better methods mean broader discussions, and discussion is freedom in thought and expression.

The one burning conviction that should come to us all in this hour of need for true Americans is that when we lose our agricultural heritage we lose our distinctive American training. The barefoot boy must return to his farm.

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—M. R. McDaniel, principal, Township High School.....Oak Park, Ill.
Vice-President—Lydia M. Schmidt, University High School.....Chicago, Ill.
Secretary—R. J. Hargreaves, principal, high school.....Spokane, Wash.

FIRST SESSION—Tuesday Forenoon, July 2, 1918

The meeting was called to order at 9:45 a.m. by President M. R. McDaniel. Secretary R. J. Hargreaves not being present, J. L. Thalman, principal, Proviso Township High School, Maywood, Ill., was appointed Secretary.

Mr. Oscar W. Demmler, Fifth Avenue High School, Pittsburgh, Pa., led the meeting in singing "America" and the "Star-Spangled Banner."

The following program was then rendered:

"Mothers of Democracy"—Mrs. Taylor Allderdice, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"Physical Education in the High School in the Present Emergency"—W. S. Small, specialist, U.S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.

"Citizenship thru Athletics—a Concrete Example"—Glen F. Thistlethwaite, director of physical training, high school, Oak Park, Ill.

The Committee on the Study of Sociology in High Schools was to have reported on the "Actual Conditions in Various States" and to have made "Definite Proposals for Further Progress." The chairman of the Committee, E. O. Sisson, president of the University of Montana, was unable to be present, so the Department voted that the Committee continue its investigation and report at the next annual meeting, the personnel of the Committee to be changed or added to at the discretion of the incoming president of the Department.

The President appointed the following Committee on Nominations:

Edward Rynearson, principal, Fifth Avenue High School, Pittsburgh, Pa.

R. Thane Cook, principal, Union High School, Phoenix, Ariz.

John G. Graham, principal, high school, Huntington, W.Va.

SECOND SESSION—Wednesday Forenoon, July 3, 1918

Joint program with Library Department.

THIRD SESSION—Wednesday Afternoon, July 3, 1918

The meeting was called to order by the president, who appointed Miss Lydia Schmidt, Chicago, as Secretary.

The following program was presented:

General Topic: Education for the Day after the War

"The Present Emergency in Secondary Education"—G. D. Strayer, chairman, Commission on the National Emergency in Education.

"Education of the Adolescent in England, with Special Reference to the English Education Bill"—Frank Roscoe, secretary of the Teachers' Registration Council, London, representing the government and the educational associations of Great Britain.

"Sex Education in Secondary Schools in Relation to National Efficiency"—Norman F. Coleman, Reed College, Portland Ore., representing Council of National Defense.

Discussion.

The Committee on Nominations recommended the following officers, and they were unanimously elected:

President—Franklin W. Johnson, principal, University High School, Chicago, Ill.

Vice-President—Edmund D. Lyon, principal, Hughes High School, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Secretary—Anna Willson, principal, high school, Crawfordsville, Ind.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

MOTHERS OF DEMOCRACY

MRS. TAYLOR ALLDERDICE, PITTSBURGH, PA.

(From notes taken by Anna Pierpont Siviter)

We hear much these days of the world being upside down, and yet, thru the darkness and horror of the overturning process, is it not true that many things we once feared were hopelessly down are now rapidly coming up? If five years ago a social worker had ventured to predict that the time was close at hand when the school buildings of Pittsburgh would have semi-monthly meetings of the mothers of the ward, where they sang and sewed for a common cause, where the children were as welcome as the "grown-ups," and where speeches and talks from the women themselves were a common occurrence, I for one would have said that the millennium was much nearer at hand than was usually supposed; and yet this is now taking place in more than forty places of meeting in and about Pittsburgh.

And how has it come to pass? What is the bond that has power to draw these women together, without regard to creed, or color, or class? It is the bond of motherhood, of a common cause: my son is fighting for you, your son is fighting that I and mine may live. A year ago I chose as my work the care of the soldier's family. I had always been interested in that sort of thing, and the mother and the child at home appeal to me very strongly. My husband is on the Appellate Board, and I think that is one of the worst jobs that Uncle Sam has to hand out. He must look over every day about one hundred or more names of men who don't want to go. The cards that came in last September, the registration cards, showed very plainly that many of the men had dependents. Notwithstanding the ruling that those with dependents were not to go, one card in particular read: "Have you dependents?" The answer was: "A wife and four children, a mother-in-law, aged aunt and father." And where it says, "Do you wish exemption?" he had written, "My God, No!" Another card

that made an impression on me was that of a boy who had several dependents, and when asked if he claimed exemption, he replied, "Yes, I deserve exemption, but I am not going to ask for it." More and more every day I realized that soldiers' families were calling to some of us who were left at home.

It so happened that at Camp Lee some big-souled officer decided that it would put heart into the mothers at home if they could know the men who were to guide and care for their boys overseas, and the plan was made to send to Pittsburgh and ask the mothers of the soldiers to hold a remembrance night; the boys would meet the second Friday of each month, and the mothers were to do the same.

On account of my work with the Civilian Relief of the Red Cross I was called to meet Captain Barratt O'Hara of the 319th Regiment, of Camp Lee, and we arranged for a big "parents' meeting" on February 10 in Soldiers' Memorial Hall of Pittsburgh. The officers came and the fathers and mothers, five thousand of them, and there was a band, too, and flags, and distinguisht speakers. It was a most impressive meeting, but when it was over the real meeting came, for it was announst that the officers wisht to shake hands with all in the Hall, and what a greeting! "You know my boy?" a man would question. "Know him! Why he's the finest boy in my company!" And so the greetings ran.

This meeting showed us the need for the organization that was in our minds, and we set about it by means of an advertisement. We asked all mothers to come to a meeting to register and get in a moving picture that was to be shown in the camps. The picture was to be taken at one o'clock, but the mothers began coming at half-past eleven. They were not all very well drest for the picture; many had their heads tied up in handkerchiefs, but everyone had a service flag, and many came a long distance—from Beaver, Ligonier, Zelienople, and Elizabeth.

I said to Mr. Dawson (the Pathé man) that we would never be able to photograph them. He said, "Now we are going to take the picture." His plan was to ask the women to get up and go outside and then walk toward the Hall. I said that it would be impossible to ask them to do this. He said, "I know women and how they like to have their pictures taken." I said, "But they have come early to get front seats." "All right," he said, "you try." So I said, "Ladies, I am very sorry that we didn't get you as you were coming in. Those who care to get into the picture, if you will please step outside. . . . ." Before I was half finisht, every woman was up and on her way out, with her knitting bag, bundle, baby, and all. Then they marcht slowly, while Mr. Dawson was winding the film, every woman waving her flag and trying to get as near to the camera as she could.

I spoke to one woman as she was going out and said, "It is too bad, after you have come to get a front seat." She replied, "Not at all, that is

what I came for, to get in the picture." That day we had registration cards asking for the signee's name and address, with the name of her son and his camp. They could be signed by either mother or sister, and I took home over eight-hundred signed cards. Of these there were fifteen mothers who had three sons in the service; one mother had four sons in the service; fifty-five had two sons; five had two sons and a daughter in France. One card in particular read three sons, name of camps unknown. We sorted those cards into districts and selected the ones with the most promising handwriting and wrote to the signee and asked her if she would come to an organization meeting and bring as many mothers as she could gather. And so there was born the organization known as the Mothers of Democracy, whose plan it is that all soldiers and women shall have a mother's remembrance night on the second Friday of the month, and there can't fail to be a strong spiritual-mental bond productive of good cheer.

To our surprise, in every district (and we now have forty) women came forward who seemed especially fitted for the work of organization. They were born leaders, to whom an opportunity had never before come, and we found them eager to take the responsibility of the first meetings we arranged for, and to them has been given the responsibility of all the after-meetings.

The programs they prepare are very varied; one devotes its time to a literary entertainment, where the women knit as they listen to music and speeches, largely by themselves. Other meetings are for regular Red Cross work, where letters from the boys overseas are exchanged, and ideas for Christmas and birthday boxes are promulgated.

At all gatherings good cheer and fellowship reign. Careful speakers from other spheres of activities are often introduced to try to interest the Italian mother and the young Polish wife who lives round the corner, and whose little baby keeps her from attending other meetings. Or perhaps there is a speaker from overseas, who tells of what his comrades are doing, full of pride and patriotism and achievement, planting the seeds of the same feeling in the hearts of the mothers before him.

Germans and Poles, English and Scotch, Italians, Swedes, and Jews laugh and cry together at the stories that are told and the songs that are sung in this commingling of interest from which are being born patriotic American mothers.

And so the schoolhouse is becoming a community center, where the heart as well as the head is educated. And when the Mothers of Democracy stand shoulder to shoulder with their sons in service, to America a dream of many who love our country's good will have come true; for from the Mothers of Democracy shall be born the Sons of Liberty, free from race prejudice, free from the bonds of ignorance, and pledged to the service of God and Home and Native Land.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE HIGH SCHOOL IN THE PRESENT EMERGENCY

W. S. SMALL, SPECIALIST IN SCHOOL HYGIENE, UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D.C.

In the year 1917, 2,500,000 men between the ages of twenty-one and thirty-one years were examined for the National Army. Of these, 34 per cent were found physically unfit for military service and were rejected. Many of these were rejected on account of remediable defects; just how many we do not know, but probably somewhere between 30 and 40 per cent. If we accept the lower figure, then about one out of every ten men of draft age is unfit for military service because of remediable physical defects.

That is not the whole story, however. Of those who were accepted as being without physical defects, a large proportion were lacking in the strength, endurance, and general organic power necessary for intensive military training. This defect had to be made good by months of purely physical training in the training camps.

Here then are two facts: a large amount of rejection for physical defect, much of which could have been easily remedied in school years; and a large amount of undevelopt physical capacity, all of which could have been developt during school years. If physical education means anything worthy of respect, it means that these undevelopt resources of human capacity and human happiness should be conserved and developt. Whether we think of these wasted resources in the terms of soldiers of the future, or of workers of the future, or merely as citizens of the future, we must realize that this is a real problem, and that it demands for its solution high intelligence and genuine sacrifice.

There are in the United States approximately 5,000,000 boys of high-school age. Of these, there were enrolled in secondary schools in 1916, 750,000—approximately 15 per cent. These are the selected youth of the nation, selected either by intellectual capacity or by economic opportunity. It is a service and a duty of the highest patriotic import that confronts our high schools—to develop to its full capacity this potential man power.

Under the Revised Selective Service Regulations for Physical Examination of the Provost Marshal General there are four classes: those who are free from defects and are therefore fit for immediate training for general service; those with remediable defects who may be made fit by corrective measures; those with non-remediable defects who, however, are capable of limited service; those who are totally unfit.

This classification naturally suggests a method of procedure in the high schools in the present emergency:

1. A thoro medico-physical examination of all high-school boys and classification approximating the draft classification. This must be done with intelligence, discretion, and sympathy—in such a way as to encourage,

not to discourage, those who are found to have defects. The greatest kindness and the greatest service that could be rendered a boy handicapt by a defect would be to reveal to him the nature of the defect, the limitations it imposes upon him, and the method of overcoming or obviating it. This would preserve self-respect and stimulate ambition.

In schools with a well-developt system of physical education this will involve little that is new. In schools which heretofore have neglected this first principle of physical education it will be wise to begin with the Senior class. The Seniors have but one year in which to recover lost ground. Personally I would then take the entering pupils, the second-year pupils, and the third-year pupils in that order.

2. There should be no high-school graduates in the second class. Corrective and remedial measures should be carefully prescribed. Whatever treatment is required should be insisted upon, and the elimination of the defect or progress toward the elimination of the defect should be an absolute condition to graduation. Some will require surgical treatment, some medical treatment; a great many more will require corrective exercises and practice of hygienic habits.

3. For students of the first class, those free from defect, there is required an intensive and varied program of physical training under discipline to develop strength, endurance, muscular skill, alertness, cooperation under leadership, and the other physical and social qualities essential alike in military or civil pursuits. No boy of this class should receive a diploma who has not received and profited by such training to the end that the waste of time now incident to conditioning soldiers may be reduced to a minimum, and to the end that high-school graduates who go into civil pursuits may be capable of rendering maximum service.

This will require time. Two hours a day is the minimum—one hour for disciplinary exercises under strict plan and direction; one for recreational exercise, giving free play to individual preference.

In addition, physical labor outside of school may be included as a substitute for part of the exercise. This will require analysis of the character of the muscular processes involved in the work and its proper evaluation in terms of physical development.

Above all, athletics must be utilized and extended, must be made a part of the training of every boy. The testimony of the commanding officers of the training camps is uniform as to the value of the mass or socialized athletics as preparatory military training. "I have observed" says one, "that athletes assimilate discipline quicker than any other class of men. Their experience in athletics has taught them the necessity for discipline and team work."

One of the tragedies of American education is the failure, in any large and general way, to understand and capitalize this rich resource of physical and moral education.

What of the girls? Are they not to be thought of in this emergency? My answer is that everything I have askt for the boys I ask for the girls. Racially the educated vigor of woman is more important than that of man.

Is such a program an irridescent dream? That depends largely upon the high-school teachers. If we are able to free ourselves from the subconscious legacy of the ascetic and scholastic habit of thought and look with level eyes upon this great opportunity we can accomplish much. The public mind is awake and sensitive. It needs but directing vision to make it act.

CITIZENSHIP AND ATHLETICS—A CONCRETE EXAMPLE

GLEN F. THISTLETHWAITE, DIRECTOR OF PHYSICAL TRAINING, HIGH SCHOOL, OAK PARK, ILL.

The purpose of all education is to train for citizenship. Physical education has to do with the health, the growth, and the development of our physical being. Athletics are usually considered a phase of physical training or physical education, but to be so classified they must be educational, and where they are educational they must certainly train for citizenship.

It is the purpose of this paper to show how athletics may improve our citizenship when directed in the proper way, and to do that a concrete illustration will be used. But first it must be remembered that when we speak of the athletics of our high-school pupils we mean more than interscholastic contests and games, and for that reason we shall think of interschool or interscholastic athletics and intraschool or intramural athletics.

For our concrete example the Oak Park and River Forest Township High School at Oak Park, Ill., is used, not because it has solved the problem any better than many other schools, but because being located in a suburb of a large city, under large-city conditions, and of about average size—1400 pupils—it offers a fair illustration.

The after-school hours, from the time school closes until the dinner hour, form the most valuable period of the day for practical physical training. Theory and suggestive exercise can be taught during the regular class hours, and some corrective work can be done then, but the greatest good derived from physical training during school hours as practist in the average school is its recreational value from the regular school work and the habits formed in personal hygiene and discipline. For healthful exercise the time after school must be utilized. Very few pupils do any studying from the time school is out until dinner time. At the close of the school day the pupils are more or less fatigued in nervous energy, and recreation and exercise of some enjoyable nature should follow immediately.

We have always provided that exercise and supervision for a small percentage of our boys in the form of interscholastic athletics. Our inter-

scholastic athletics have most certainly been training for citizenship as well as for emergencies. The fundamental idea of teaming or team work is necessary to every business, professional, or institutional enterprise, and in our athletics that idea becomes grounded in a boy's character. Loyalty is necessary to citizenship and should be an object of education. To get out and pull for the team, to win and to suffer with it in defeat, develops a school spirit and a school pride.

The criticism directed toward athletics deals with the abuse of the prevailing system. A great deal can be said about foul tactics and questionable methods, and during the past there has been much ground for such criticism. Imbued with the desire to win, there has been a tendency to adopt the German policy that might makes right and anything is permissible to win. But gradually we have been correcting this error by having our boys coacht and supervised by men who have been more interested in character-building than in winning.

The most important criticism directed toward our interscholastic or intercollegiate athletics is that we overdevelop a few and neglect the masses, and it is this mistake that demands immediate remedy. When our athletes are meeting the nation's demands in such an encouraging way the deplorable feature is that we have produced such a small number of them. The remedy for this error is intraschool or intramural athletics. They should be made as much a part of the school as the interscholastic athletics, so far as the boys are concerned. What is good for the few is good for all. All have an equal right to the use of the school property, the gymnasium, and the athletic field. All have an equal right to the instruction of the athletic teachers and directors.

To abolish interscholastic athletics in order to promote the mass idea would be a serious mistake. A few colleges have tried the plan, but with very questionable success. Love of contest is not enough to get our high-school boys to do their best, and unless they do their best the interest soon lags and little good is accomplisht. Good playing, as well as a knowledge of the rules, is gained by associating with and observing the players on the regular school team. There must be a goal for a boy's work. Practically every boy in a school would give anything to be on the varsity team, yet only the best will go out and try for it. A boy wants to know before going out that there is a chance for him to make the team. But the mediocre boy and even the poorly developt boy, if given an opportunity to compete against boys of his own age, size, and experience, jumps at the opportunity. He gets on his class, session-room, or some other team. Unconsciously he develops himself to a place where he has more confidence in his own ability.

We need more school teams so that our athletics may be representative of the different stages in the development of our boys. With the number of school teams multiplied by three the number of boys participating is

naturally increast in like ratio. This alone will account for the greater number of boys physically able to engage in competitive games in a small school with less than one hundred boys. In larger schools, with the school sports designated as heavyweight, lightweight, and midget weight, it becomes an easy matter to organize intramural leagues in each division.

Wrestling, gymnastics, tennis, cross-country running, and many other tournaments can be conducted in the same way, even tho there are no school teams in those sports.

In a school where there is but one small gymnasium and an athletic field to correspond it is difficult to put thru a full intramural program and at the same time keep up the present pace in interscholastic athletics. The best solution of the problem is to decrease the number of interschool games played and make the respective seasons much shorter. Run off the intraschool leagues first and pick in each division all-star teams, which then become the school teams. This gives the very best players for the final school team and is an inducement for the boys to do their best in the preliminary games. A condenst schedule can then be played with other schools, and if some championship is at stake a final tournament or, what is better, a series of elimination games can be played. Let the principals of the schools in each league get together, place a limit on interschool competition, and agree on definite dates for the opening of the interschool seasons, all with the idea of getting more boys in the game.

The Oak Park High School board has been during the last five years gradually putting into effect this idea of mass athletics. The details of the system have been left with the physical directors, but the board has stood sponsor and has furnisht the protection and inducements for furthering the plan. The path has not been a rosy one. The transition of a school that was saturated with the one-team idea into one for every boy in the game has been most difficult. The community had learned to think in terms of national championships. It took courage for a school board to change the athletic policy and have the time and energy of the coaches devoted to the interests of all the boys to the neglect of the school heroes. But gradually the public settled down to a new level and began to take a different view of things. By degrees people awoke to the fact that an unusual number of boys were participating in the athletics.

Once the old handicap was removed the teams improved. The idea of national championships has been entirely forgotten, and the school takes just as much pride in fighting for and winning the prized banner in the local high-school league of ten schools. During the school year just finisht, out of a possible eight championships in the league the school won five. All the school teams get less coaching than ever before, but the competition for places is much keener, and boys are brought to the front who would never have been discovered under the old method.

In working out the system of intramural competition the session-room is taken as a unit. This basis of division in a large school has a tremendous advantage over any other, as the boys in the session-rooms are thrown together for fifteen minutes each morning, and for four days of the week are in the room together during a forty-five minute study period. The boys become acquainted immediately, and a little community starts. Announcements, elections, and many affairs that concern only the individual session-room are held.

At the beginning of the athletic season each room elects managers for the various forms of competition—soccer, basket-ball, wrestling, track, and baseball—and as most of these sports are divided into classes according to age and weight there is an opportunity for almost every boy to get on a team. The managers are called together and are organized into a board of control. Schedules are drawn up, and each manager is responsible for all announcements being made in his room, and for scores of games being given the proper publicity.

Quite recently the president of the school board told the writer that one day last November he visited the various fields when no one suspected his presence and counted over two hundred boys engaged in competition. This figure included about eighty-five boys who were practicing for the school teams at that time.

The gymnasium is large enough for two basket-ball courts, so that eight games can be played each afternoon. In addition the running-track affords room for track competition, and by utilizing the space under the running-track wrestling and gymnastics are conducted at the same time. Last winter there were forty-five basket-ball teams in the three leagues, each team playing twice each week. All-star squads were chosen to represent the school in an independent schedule with the teams from other high schools, so that for the last month of the season the school was represented by four teams.

No figures have been kept to show the exact number of boys taking part, but the number on the various teams in competition during last year runs over one thousand. Probably 50 per cent of these are duplicates, so that it would seem that about five hundred of the six hundred boys in the school get into some form of organized team play.

With what results in regard to citizenship? A general deduction is hard to make, but a few points stand out very prominently. Everybody in the game makes athletics democratic, and every boy feels that he is a cog in the machine. He feels that he helpt to make the team, and if it is not successful he is partially to blame. Gradually the rooting at games has taken on a different aspect. There has been a very noticeable improvement in individual honesty and sportsmanship. In the intramural games students act as referees but perform little more than the mechanical part of that official's duties. This democratic control makes any boy who would

use foul tactics very unpopular; no boy will long stand against the ill will of his fellows, and as a result a spirit of good sportsmanship and clean play dominates the whole athletic situation.

It is said that in the European countries at war juvenile crime is greatly on the increase. In Vienna the increase for 1916 is quoted as being 340 per cent greater than the year before. Whether there will be a similar increase in America after two or three years of war depends largely on the efforts in our secondary schools, and one of the greatest opportunities lies in the after-school program. In this hour of crisis we must forget our old ideas of athletics and bend all our energies to the benefit of the greatest number.

THE EMERGENCY IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

GEORGE D. STRAYER, CHAIRMAN, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION COMMISSION ON THE NATIONAL EMERGENCY IN EDUCATION, NEW YORK, N.Y.

It has been said that this war is a war of engineers. It might as well be said that it is a war in which superior intelligence will, in the long run, bring victory. We need to keep every capable boy and girl in school thru the secondary-school period and on thru the university and professional school if we are to win out after the world-struggle which will persist even beyond the day of the declaration of peace.

The present emergency has made us conscious of certain alarming deficiencies in our scheme of secondary education. We know now that we have postponed too long the period of beginning the secondary-school studies. We, in common with the more highly civilized people of the world, should undertake the serious work of the secondary school at twelve rather than at fourteen years of age. At present, American boys and girls of eighteen years of age are approximately two years behind their European contemporaries in intellectual training. We prided ourselves, and rightly, on the physical and mental alertness of our youth. But we may not be satisfied with our scheme of education until we have accomplisht vastly more than we now do in intellectual training during the secondary-school period.

Differentiated courses of study in the intermediate schools should provide, not only for those who are to go on thru the high school and college, but also for boys and girls who are to go into commerce or industry, or who are to contribute thru the development of special skill in trades.

A very much larger provision should be made in the household arts, including cooking, sewing, millinery, dressmaking, designing, household decoration and management, and the like for girls who will make their greatest contribution along these lines. In these schools there should be a definite attempt to discover special aptitudes and abilities, in order that educational guidance may result in placing boys and girls in such courses as will permit them to develop their greatest possible efficiency.

But the problem of secondary education will not be solved by the introduction of the three-year intermediate school followed by the three-year high-school course. We must provide for the reorganization of our courses of study even in the fields which seem best establisht. Without sacrificing the intellectual training which we hope to provide, there should be a revision of many of our subjects in such a manner as to provide in them some definite relationship to the everyday experience and work. Already a beginning has been made in mathematics, science, and certain other subjects. Nothing is lost in teaching the kind of mathematics which can be used in the shop, in the home, or in the explanation of everyday phenomena. The science which is related to our everyday life is quite as important as the science which in the lives of boys and girls is related only to laboratory experiments. The teaching of modern languages will be vastly more significant in intellectual training if we recognize the necessity for a kind of teaching in this field which would hold before boys and girls a standard of achievement which can be satisfied only when they are able to speak and to write in the foreign tongue.

If the work of the secondary school is to be developt in relation to our modern needs we shall have to provide more adequate training for teachers. If the American people are wise they will make it possible for a man or a woman to find a career in teaching in our secondary schools comparable to that to be found in medicine, in law, or in engineering. Surely it is of as great importance to the future of our country that men of broad training, of keen intelligence, and of highest ideals be associated with our children during this most important period of their development as it is that we provide adequate service in the other professions. We can never hope to secure this kind of a teaching corps unless we are willing to invest vastly greater sums in teachers' salaries. Our choicest men and young women may not be expected to engage in this highest type of national service without sufficient salaries to enable them even to have ordinary comforts or to lead the kind of life which makes for intellectual growth and development. The future of our American citizenship, the ideals of our leaders, are in very large degree dependent upon the action which the American people take in support of teachers in their schools.

EDUCATION OF THE ADOLESCENT IN ENGLAND

FRANK ROSCOE, SECRETARY OF THE TEACHERS' REGISTRATION COUNCIL, LONDON, ENGLAND

(From notes taken by Miss Schmidt)

Mr. Frank Roscoe, secretary of the Teachers' Registration Council, London, England, who represents the government and education associations of Great Britain, spoke on the education of the adolescent at a meeting

of the Department of Secondary Education. He gave a short sketch of the history of the English public school, which goes back to the time of Henry VIII and Edward VI.

The Fisher Bill, which provides for the reorganization of the English school system, was then discust by the speaker. An interesting point brought out in the discussion was the fact that 75 per cent of the pupils in secondary schools pay fees, tho a number of scholarships are also provided. The speaker said that the free education of all pupils in the secondary schools would be considered impossible in a country so bound by traditions as is England.

The changed attitude of Parliament regarding school matters which has been brought about by the war was also alluded to. There is no objection to increast taxation. In one evening several millions for teachers' salaries were secured without protest. The explanation that this amount represented only one-half day's fighting in the war sufficed to overcome all objections. Five years ago this would have been impossible.

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—WILLIAM T. FOSTER, president, Reed College.....Portland, Ore.
Vice-President—F. L. MCVEY, president, State University.....Lexington, Ky.
Secretary—E. L. SCHAUB, professor of philosophy, Northwestern University....Evanston, Ill.

The Department of Higher Education of the National Education Association met in Pittsburgh, July 2 and 3, at the Mellon Institute, President F. L. McVey, vice-president of the department, presiding.

The following program was presented:

FIRST SESSION—TUESDAY FORENOON, JULY 2, 1918

The program for this meeting was arranged by the Emergency Council on Education.

General Topic: Organization for War Purposes

"The Bill for a National Department of Education"—John H. MacCracken, president, Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.

"Psychological Service in Connection with the Military Organization of the United States"—R. F. Yerkes, major, Sanitary Corps, United States Army, chairman, Psychology Committee, National Research Council, Washington, D.C.

Discussion.

SECOND SESSION—WEDNESDAY FORENOON, JULY 3, 1918

General Topic: National Preparedness

"Universal Government Service"—Miss Sarah L. Arnold, dean of Simmons College, Boston, Mass.

"Sex Education and the War"—Norman F. Coleman, professor of English, Reed College, Portland, Ore.

"Education after the War"—James P. Munroe, member, Advisory Board, War Department Committee on Education and Special Training, Washington, D.C.

"The Problems of Historical Scholarship and Teaching as Affected by the War"—E. B. Greene, chairman, National Board for Historical Research, Washington, D.C.

Discussion.

At the business session held Wednesday forenoon, July 3, the following officer was elected for the ensuing year:

President—Frank L. McVey, president of the University of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

THE BILL FOR A NATIONAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

JOHN H. MACCRACKEN, PRESIDENT, LAFAYETTE COLLEGE, EASTON, PA.

At the annual meeting of the National Association of School Superintendents, held in Washington, February 7, 1866, E. E. White, then commissioner of common schools of Ohio, read a paper on "A National Bureau

of Education." He favored a system of conditional appropriations and a general system of inspection and encouragement thru the agency of a national Bureau of Education to induce each state to maintain an efficient school system. "Such a bureau," he said, "would be the strength and shield of free institutions." This memorial summed up the results of the agitation of twenty years and laid down the principles which gave us our present Bureau of Education.

The memorial bore the date of February 10, 1866. On February 14, 1866, Congressman James A. Garfield, to whom Dr. White had presented the memorial, introduced a bill for the establishment of a national bureau. On April 3 the bill was reported out of committee, with an amendment changing the name from "Bureau" to "Department," and in July, 1866, the bill was past by the House providing for a Department of Education.

At the next meeting of the National Association of School Superintendents a committee of five, with E. E. White again as chairman, was appointed to urge the passage of the bill in the Senate, and on March 6, 1867, the bill past the Senate and the next day was signed by President Johnson.

The life of the department as a department was a short one. In the appropriation bill of July 20, 1868, a rider reduced the department to a bureau of the Department of the Interior, and it reduced the salary of the Commissioner from $5000 to $3000, the change to take effect June 30, 1869. Thus there was a department in existence for two years and four months.

The history of the establishment of the bureau is illuminating and encouraging to us of this generation who are interested in seeing a department replace the bureau. It is encouraging to note that twenty years of agitation were required to accomplish anything. It is also cheering to note that when educational opinion had crystallized it required only four days to get a bill before Congress, and only one year to have it made a law. It is also significant that it was *in that case also* war which focust the opinion of the country on the importance of education.

What now are the principles which we believe to be fundamental?

1. That education is inferior to no other interest of government, and that this fact must receive recognition by the appointment of a national representative of education in the President's cabinet.

2. That the people of the United States have a common national interest in education as well as an interest in education within their own state, and that this national interest of the people should find expression thru a national office.

3. That the national office should not control education in the states, but should represent state education and should be the agent of the states in educational matters of interstate interest.

4. That when any state is obviously failing to do its share in the development of good schools and the training of American citizens and thus creat-

ing a weak spot in the American lines, it is the function of a national Department of Education, expressing the public opinion of the United States, by publicity, by persuasion, and by subsidy to stimulate and promote better educational conditions in that state.

5. That inasmuch as the conditions of labor in general have been taken under the wardenship of the national government, and the national government has not hesitated to define a normal working day and to pronounce on the adequacy of compensation in various industries, or the conditions under which women and children will be employed, a national Department of Education might properly concern itself with the improvement of the teachers' financial status and might properly aid in raising the standards of training for the profession.

6. The entrance of the United States into the world-war has so radically altered our relationships to foreign countries, wiping out the sharp separation between American, European, and Asiatic affairs, that international educational relations have assumed an importance hitherto unknown. Already there is establisht a Division of Foreign Education in the Committee on Public Information. Already the National Research Council has secured the appointment of scientific attachés at certain foreign embassies. It is clear that education can no longer be regarded as exclusively or appropriately a function of the Department of the Interior. On the contrary, foreign relations in education will constitute one of the greatest, if not the greatest, of the functions of the new Department of Education.

If we are to have a better understanding of things after the war and if we are to avoid war in the future, we must be willing to spend not only millions at home but millions abroad interpreting American thought and ideals to the other great nations of the world.

Moreover, if we should have some form of universal national service in this country after the war, we shall either have to make our War Department a Department of Education and turn our Navy, as has been suggested, into a university, or we must create a national Department of Education which will take over the educational tasks involved in universal national service.

For this reason, if for no other, we want at Washington a department which will represent the aspirations of the American people, not for dominion, nor commerce, nor food, nor dollars, but for the fulness of life as intelligent free men which our forefathers knew and which we, their sons, have not forgotten even in the strain of present circumstances.

Two bills have been drafted and placed in the hands of the chairman of the Senate Committee on Education to carry out these purposes: one, a bill drafted by a committee of the National Education Association with Superintendent Chandler, of Richmond, as chairman; the other, a bill drafted by a committee of the Emergency Council on Education, of which the writer is chairman.

The bill of the Emergency Council contents itself with the establishment of a Department of Education, defining its functions and appropriating money for the operation of the department.

The bill of the committee of the National Education Association adds large appropriations to be used as subsidies in the states to promote Americanization of immigrants, improvement of rural schools, and better training of teachers.

Both bills leave to the discretion of the President the determination of what existing educational agencies of government shall be transferred to the new department.

The functions of the Department of Education are thus defined in the bill of the Emergency Council on Education in Section 9:

1. That it shall be the duty of the Department of Education to cooperate with the states in the development of public educational facilities, including public health education, and to act as the agent of the states and upon their request in matters of education of interstate interest.

2. That the department shall represent the people of the United States in international educational affairs, shall keep the people of the United States informed of progress in education abroad, and shall disseminate abroad knowledge of American education and of the national life and ideals of the American people, and to this end shall maintain as attachés at foreign embassies properly qualified American students of education.

3. The Department shall care for educational wards of the nation not intrusted to the care of the respective states, and shall execute such laws as Congress may make looking toward the Americanization of immigrants, the equalization of educational opportunities, and the guaranteeing to every child such knowledge of the American language as shall enable the child to discharge his obligations as an American citizen.

4. The Department shall encourage learning in all branches, scientific research, and the advancement of teaching as a profession. It shall promote the organization of learned societies and seek thru such societies and by publications to disseminate for the benefit of all the people the fruits of learning and scientific study wherever found.

5. The Department shall organize a National Council of Education, to be composed of representatives, nominated annually, one each, by the great, learned societies representing an important field of knowledge, under regulations prescribed by the Secretary. The functions of this Council shall be to place at the disposal of the government, both in war and in peace, all national resources of learning and scientific study.

The bill appropriates $500,000 additional per annum for the administration of these new functions.

In addition to these bills drawn but not yet introduced, there is a bill now before the Senate Committee on Education introduced by Senator Owen, which, however, merely magnifies the present bureau into a department without outlining new functions.

One other alternative has suggested itself to those interested in the creation of a Department of Education, that should be mentioned in this connection. This is the proposal to transfer from the Department of the Interior, the Land Office, the Pension Office, and the Patent Office, change the name of the department to Education and Public Health, or Arts, Science, and Public Health, transfer to it the educational functions of other

departments, and thus create a true Department of Education. This is a plan which we hope to discuss with the President in the near future.

There is a growing sentiment in favor of a national Department of Education. This sentiment is attaining such proportions that we believe that if no action is taken by the present administration the creation of a department can be made a campaign issue in the next presidential campaign and be written into the platform of one, if not both, of the great political parties. There is general agreement among the teaching professions in favor of such a department, tho there is some difference of opinion as to just what the functions of such a department should be. We propose to ask the National Education Association at this meeting to appoint a committee of three in each state to urge the creation of such a department, as was done in 1865. We trust that the resolution will have your support.

In conclusion let me urge each one of you to do what you can to create interest in this matter in your own neighborhood. The project is too big and too fundamental to be hurried. We want to build for the new department broad foundations of public interest. Only thus can we be sure that when Congress acts the bill will not be shorn of its significant features, or the new department, like the department of 1866, wither and die because prematurely born and inadequately nourisht.

SEX EDUCATION AND THE WAR

NORMAN F. COLEMAN, PROFESSOR OF ENGLISH, REED COLLEGE, PORTLAND, ORE.

The needs of the nation in war time have emphasized the importance of conserving the health and strength of our people, especially of our young men. The effective strength of the Army is menast by venereal diseases probably more than by all other diseases put together. This creates an emergency which can be met only by the earnest cooperation of all possible agencies. The essential problem is recognized by the Surgeon General's Department to be one of education. The share of the institutions of higher learning in this education is an important one and has a twofold character.

1. For the instruction of the rising generation in the essential facts of sex and for the cultivation of those personal and social motives which are powerful for the ends of health we must depend upon teachers now in training in normal schools and colleges and in the education departments of our universities. It is clear that some process of selection and training should be set to work so that students of biology, physical education, and related subjects, who are specially qualified by scientific knowledge and natural tact and sympathy, may be specifically trained for the work of sex education. Not that they should give their whole time or any considerable part of their time to this subject, but that they should be wise enough to

incorporate in regular courses of instruction an understanding of the essential facts and relations of sex.

2. The young men who attend college and university in war times become, almost all of them, an integral part of the national forces. If the war continues, the men who are at college this fall will in a year or so, perhaps even in a few months, be commissioned and noncommissioned officers in the Army or Navy. There they will set standards for companies and regiments. They need to know accurately the dangers that follow sexual vice, and they need to know clearly the means of sex health.

It has been abundantly proved that the preoccupation of men's minds and physical energies by constructive activity and wholesome amusement is of first importance. Everything that keeps the soldier in vital connection with his home and friends and keeps alive and growing his ambition for future success, not only as a soldier in time of war, but as a citizen in time of peace, ministers directly to his health of mind and body.

It is the privilege and task of the young officers of the new Army to plan and provide activities for their men which shall in this way sustain their morale and promote their present and future usefulness. For these reasons it must be clear that only by including in our present and future plans for higher education a recognition of the need for sex education and a wise provision for meeting that need can we help to meet the present emergency and conserve the strength of our young men and women for the great tasks of reconstruction that will follow the war.

EDUCATION AFTER THE WAR

JAMES P. MUNROE, MEMBER, ADVISORY BOARD, WAR DEPARTMENT COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION AND SPECIAL TRAINING, WASHINGTON, D.C.

We are inclined to think that everything is in the melting-pot, and that after the war all the bad things will be gone and we shall be ready for a new world. It is probable, however, that human nature will reassert itself, and that while some things will be better, others will be worse.

One activity that will be profoundly affected is education, and this for two reasons: first, because, more than any other human activity, education has been severely put to the test by the war; and secondly, because before 1914 we were on the brink of a great change in education as a whole. The effect of the war upon education will be, it seems to me, to make it at once more idealistic and more practical. It will be made more idealistic because for the first time in generations the whole civilized world has been shaken to its depths, and before America shall have played her full part there is scarcely a family and scarcely a youth who will not have been brought face to face with great ethical questions. Furthermore by this war democracy has been lifted from a mere name to which we did lip service to a visualized idea for which we are giving everything most precious.

On the other hand education will become more practical because the war has shown that our national unpreparedness was due in great measure to the fact that American education had almost no relation to the needs of modern life.

After the war we shall be striving in education to do these things on the idealistic side, first, to give youth a real vision of genuine democracy; secondly, to assimilate the peoples of other nations and to give them a similar vision; thirdly, to give every boy and girl the largest opportunity that can possibly be provided. On the practical side we shall be striving to make the most of our resources, both material and human, to prevent waste and to teach genuine economics.

To enable education to perform this far broader service, to these ideal and practical ends, there are certain essentials: first, more money, in order that teachers may be paid more and that their classes may be smaller; secondly, thoro reform in the administrative control of public education; thirdly, real cooperation among all the agencies which make for the education of children and youth; fourthly, different and higher standards in the training of teachers; fifthly, a much larger proportion of men teachers, especially in the secondary schools; sixthly, entire emancipation from textbooks and from textbook domination; seventhly, all-day sessions of the schools.

With education thus put on an efficient basis we should inaugurate universal service for both men and women between the sixteenth and twenty-fifth years, this service to include some military training and a larger amount of training in hygiene and gymnastics, and a major part of the time to be given to specific training along vocational lines, fitting for the real service to society (see outline of principles appended).

With these weapons of money, men, and better administration the next generation in education should be able to get at and educate practically every child as an individual; should be able to give him genuine vocational guidance and effective vocational training, whether he is to be a carpenter, a lawyer, or a college president; should put a stop, in large measure, to the waste in human and material resources which disgraced us before the war; should be able to infuse youth, not only with an understanding, but with true devotion to democracy; and finally should stimulate and perpetuate that understanding and that true knowledge which teaches that the only genuine living is a life of service.

PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING UNIVERSAL MILITARY SERVICE

It should be really universal, including every young person of both sexes. It should be exacted between the ages of sixteen, or possibly eighteen, and twenty-five. It should be a combination of military and vocational (or avocational) service, with the emphasis strongly upon the vocational side. As far as possible it should be given as a part of school, college, shop, store, or office training, but should always be under federal supervision.

Service should be for the whole of at least one continuous year (or half of two continuous years) and for a certain part of a number of years thereafter. The person who has rendered the year of service should give at least one or two weeks each year, for perhaps ten years thereafter, to some sort of continued course, both military and vocational.

The year's service should include for men daily military exercises, and for women organized calisthenics, gymnastics, or a modified military drill. This should occupy not less than one nor more than two hours per day. The rest of the "National Service Year" should be given to the organized, serious, and intensive following of some trade, occupation, vocation, or avocation which is of distinct service to the country: (1) in war; (2) in the support of war; (3) in the furthering of agriculture, industry, or commerce; or (4) in the promotion of the general welfare.

There should be a recognized and permanent organization within the locality and thruout the country of those performing this national service, so as to promote a feeling of national solidarity.

For those pursuing education beyond the sixteenth or eighteenth year the service should be dovetailed in with the high-school, college, or professional-school training. For those leaving school before the sixteenth or eighteenth year, the year of service should either be subsidized by the federal government, or there should be devised some plan of cooperative part-time work under which, possibly, the service might be spread over two years, the youth giving half his time during those two years to earning and the other half to service.

Without making a calculation of the cost it would seem best for this year of service to be subsidized jointly by the federal government, the state (or local) government, and the parent or guardian—the last providing sustenance, and the first two sharing between them the cost of training.

"The National Service Year" should include a thoro physical overhauling and "bracing up," and there should be included as much outdoor life as possible. The service to be rendered during this year by girls and women should include all the duties of the household, nursing, etc., as well as vocational work feasible for women. As an essential part of every course there should be a substantial amount of teaching of ethics, civics, and the duties of a citizen in a democracy. Where necessary there should be provision for teaching the public-school elements and also English to foreigners.

Where there are dependents making it impossible for the youth to give even half-time to this service, there should be some form of family allowance by the government on the same general plan as that of the War Risk Insurance Bureau. Such support, however, should be in the nature of an obligation to be repaid by the "National Service Soldier" in subsequent years.

Industries should be formally brought in by requiring their cooperation in providing opportunities for training, in making cooperative part-time schemes possible, etc.

In the event of war the entire population which has been thru this training should be mobilized for (1) war service; (2) munitions service; (3) maintenance of industries, including agriculture; (4) remedial service, such as nursing, etc.; or (5) miscellaneous services called for by the dislocation of war. In the case of a national calamity other than war, such as a great flood or crop failure, this same army should be mobilized for such short or temporary service as the occasion might require. For a local catastrophe the army of that particular region should be mobilized for similar service.

After having taken the year's service the "National Service Soldier" should make at least an annual written report to the federal government, of such a character as to indicate that he or she is still competent for this special service, and showing also the additional service which, with the progress of time, the individual has fitted himself to render. He should be ready at all times for such national, state, or local service as his official training fits him to do. Usually, such service should be voluntary, but the state or the federal government should have authority to commandeer it.

THE PROBLEMS OF HISTORICAL SCHOLARSHIP AND TEACHING AS AFFECTED BY THE WAR

E. B. GREENE, CHAIRMAN, NATIONAL BOARD FOR HISTORICAL RESEARCH, WASHINGTON, D.C.

History, like other sciences, has recognized the call to service, but in doing so has been confronted with some difficult problems. Historians generally have always believed that past experience should be useful to society as well as to individuals, but they have also realized how hard it is first to determine just what actually happened in the past and then to interpret its meaning for the present. The historian also knows that the use of history in the service of a particular cause is subject to serious abuse, since there is constant temptation not to present the facts as they really were, but rather to make them fit into some preconceived theory. A striking example of the harm which may be done in this way is to be found in the writings of German historians like Treitschke and in the teaching of history in the Prussian schools, which has evidently been seriously distorted in order to justify the monarchical system and to promote an extreme type of national egoism.

Recognizing these pitfalls and believing that history to be useful must be true, American historians generally have set themselves the task of making their subject useful in the present crisis thru new lines of research, thru publications for the general reader, and thru a better presentation in the schools. At the outbreak of the war the national Board for Historical Service was establisht at Washington as a clearing-house for cooperating

scholars thruout the country. It has furnisht historical material to government departments and stimulated interest in the keeping of war records. It is especially interested in helping teachers to present to their pupils the historical background of the war and some appreciation of the historical ideals and policies of the United States.

The war has emphasized the need of more serious attention to the history of modern Europe. Neglect of modern history in our schools and our general lack of individual preparedness in this field needlessly increast the difficulty of bringing home to the American people the great issues involved in the European war. Now that the United States has assumed so large a responsibility for a just international settlement in the great "problem areas" of Europe, Asia, and Africa, the need of more historical specialists in these fields has been keenly felt. Fortunately the modern historians have been reinforst by a group of able scholars whose studies in ancient and mediaeval history have made them experts in historical method and thus enabled them to deal successfully with modern problems. Some results of these studies have been made available to the public thru the Committee on Public Information; others have been placed directly at the disposal of the government.

Since, however, America has also peculiar problems and special traditions of her own, the history of the United States needs to be studied with more care than ever and with a new perspective. Our historic ideals are deeply involved in the present conflict. Upon them must be built, tho not in any slavish spirit, the new policies of the future; and this knowledge must become the common possession of our whole people, of whatever race or previous allegiance. Recognizing the importance of national history in any plan of patriotic education, let us not be afraid to see the record as it really was, with its errors and shortcomings as well as its heroic sacrifices and achievements. Let us resolutely resist the temptation of yielding to Prussian methods in history teaching as well as in other respects, acknowledging our just debts to other peoples and especially trying to understand the common heritage of the great free nations with whom we have now joined in a common cause.

THE EMERGENCY COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

DONALD J. COWLING, PRESIDENT, CARLTON COLLEGE, NORTHFIELD, MINN.

At a meeting of the Association of American Colleges last January, the following resolutions were past:

Resolved, That the Executive Committee be authorized to join with the Association of American Universities, the National Association of State Universities, and other national educational associations in organizing a council for the consideration of such educational questions and other questions affecting the colleges as may arise in the present war and be it further

Resolved, That the Executive Committee be instructed to formulate plans and construct machinery for utilizing to the best advantage the resources of the colleges in the service of the nation in the present war, and for making effective in the counsels of the nation the collective public opinion of American higher education.

The Association also past resolutions favoring the increase of exchange professorships with our Allies; the multiplication of American fellowships and scholarships for students, both men and women, from our Allies; the establishment of such arrangements with the educational institutions of our Allies as will best provide opportunities for college students in the United States Army to continue their studies abroad when conditions permit; the creation of a commission of American educators to be appointed by this and the other national associations for conference abroad with similar educational representatives from our Allies, with the hope of bringing about a better mutual understanding and of establishing cooperative relationships; and the establishment of a federal Department of Education with a secretary in the President's cabinet.

The meeting called by President Bryan was held at the University Club, Chicago, January 12–14. The program outlined by the Association of American Colleges formed the basis of the discussion. It seemed to the members of the conference that the establishment of an educational administration at Washington would be the most feasible way of accomplishing the desired results.

Four sessions were held on January 23–24, presided over by Commissioner Claxton. Representatives of the following organizations were present: the Association of American Universities, the National Association of State Universities, the Association of American Colleges, the Association of Urban Universities, the Catholic Educational Association, the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, and the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education.

President Campbell reported that the memorandum outlined at Chicago had been presented to President Wilson thru Mr. Tumulty, and that the President had requested that the matter be taken up first with the Council of National Defense; that an interview had been secured with Secretary Lane, a member of the Council of National Defense, who had promist to give consideration to any plans which might be submitted by the educational associations or their executive committees. Most of the representatives present were not in a position to speak officially for their associations. It was therefore decided, after extended discussion, to invite the executive committees of the various educational associations to meet in Washington the following week to consider the formulation of the plans to be submitted to these associations and subsequently to the Council of National Defense.

It was voted that the educational associations of national scope represented in this meeting proceed to organize a council of national educational

associations. Dr. S. P. Capen was elected temporary chairman, and President P. L. Campbell temporary secretary. At a later session of this meeting a more formal organization was establisht under the title "The Emergency Council on Education."

The objects of the Council were stated to be:

> To place the educational resources of the country more completely at the service of the national government and its departments, to the end that thru an understanding cooperation the patriotic services of the public schools, professional schools, the colleges, and universities may be augmented; a continuous supply of educated men may be maintained, and greater effectiveness in meeting the educational problems arising during and following the war may be secured.

It was understood that the Council should "have power to act for the associations in matters of legislative and governmental business, on the basis of such authority as may be given in by the various associations."

The attention of the meeting was called to the Owen Bill, proposing the establishment by Congress of a federal Department of Education, with a secretary in the President's cabinet. After extended discussion the members present voted to form themselves into a Committee of the Whole, and to call upon Senator Hoke Smith, chairman of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor, to which committee the bill had been referred, to ascertain more fully the nature of the bill and the likelihood of its passage. The members of the Council were cordially received by Senator Smith, who exprest very great interest in the proposed establishment of a federal Department of Education and indicated his willingness to favor this movement if a satisfactory bill could be put in shape.

At a later session of the meeting Colonel Rees and Major Grenville Clark were introduced, and they announst that the War Department had just approved of the organization of a Committee on Education to be composed of three army officers and five civilians, which would have charge of all matters relating to the training of enlisted men. Colonel Rees requested the Council to suggest types of educational institutions which should be represented by the civilian members of the Army Committee on Education. In response to this request the Council recommended that the following be given representation:

1. The federal Board for Vocational Education
2. Bureau of Education
3. Universities and colleges
4. Engineering and technical schools
5. Corporation schools

The Secretary of the Council was instructed to correspond with the secretaries of the various national educational associations with the request that each association determine, either by a meeting of the association or by means of a vote taken by mail, the following points:

1. The willingness of the Association to take membership in the Emergency Council on Education.

2. The attitude of the Association toward the establishment of a Department of Education in the national government.

The meeting closed with the election of a temporary chairman and secretary-treasurer and the appointment of three additional members to serve with the officers as an ad interim committee, as follows: President Donald J. Cowling, chairman; President P. L. Campbell, secretary-treasurer; Dean H. V. Ames; Bishop T. J. Shahan; Dr. T. E. Finegan.

The list of associations accepted as members, with their official representatives, were as follows:

Association of American Universities, Dean Herman V. Ames, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

National Association of State Universities in the United States of America, President P. L. Campbell, University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.

Association of American Colleges, President Donald J. Cowling, Carlton College, Northfield, Minn.

Association of Urban Universities, President William T. Foster, Reed College, Portland, Ore.

Catholic Educational Association, Right Rev. Thomas J. Shahan, Rector, Catholic University of America, Washington, D.C.

American Association of University Professors, Professor H. W. Tyler, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Mass.

National Education Association, Dean Lotus D. Coffman, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, Dr. Thomas E. Finegan, Deputy Commissioner of Education, Albany, N.Y.

National Education Association, National Council of Education, Superintendent James Y. Joyner, Raleigh, N.C.

National Council of Normal School Presidents and Principals, President Homer H. Seerley, Iowa State Teachers' College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, Dean F. L. Bishop, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Association of American Medical Colleges, Dr. Burton D. Myers, Indiana University School of Medicine, Bloomington, Ind.

It is evident from what has been said that the Council represents the efforts at cooperation of the various national associations having to do with educational institutions, and that the circumstances which brought about the formal organization were due to the war.

As far as the work of the Council for the immediate future is concerned, the most urgent problem is to keep a sufficient number of young men in high schools, colleges, universities, and technical schools to supply the increasing need of the government for educated and specially trained men for war service. At a meeting of the Council in Philadelphia on May 17 considerable time was given to a discussion of this problem. Attention was called to the fact that some institutions had already lost as many as two-thirds of their students. Commissioner Claxton was present at this

meeting and was heartily in favor of a nation-wide campaign for the purpose of presenting to the young men of the country the urgent need of their continuing their studies until called into active service by the government. Dr. Capen, who is a member of the War Department's Committee on Education, was also present. I stated that while at the beginning there was no appreciation of the desirability of keeping students of applied sciences or teachers of applied sciences in the colleges, it has already become apparent that it is absolutely necessary to do so. President Wilson, Secretary Baker, Secretary Lane, and several others in authority have publicly exprest their judgment that the schools and colleges of the country should be maintained at full strength, and that young men under twenty-one should be encouraged to continue their education.

The Council has authorized its Executive Committee to organize a nation-wide campaign during the summer for the purpose of urging young men under draft age to go on with their education. State campaign directors are being appointed in every state in the Union, and it is planned to secure the cooperation not only of colleges and universities but also of the public schools, commercial clubs, women's organizations, churches, and the press.

What the outcome of this campaign will be it is difficult to predict, but it is hoped that at least 100,000 men will be enroled in institutions of higher learning next September.

Another matter in which the Council has become very much interested is the establishment of more intimate relations in education between America and our Allies. The one definite undertaking which has already been launcht is being carried on in cooperation with the Association of American Colleges. Last February that Association, with the approval of the Council and of the United States Bureau of Education, undertook to find scholarships covering the cost of board, room, tuition, and fees for at least one hundred French women to be brought to American colleges and universities. These scholarships are to be for the period of each student's undergraduate study. The institutions are responding most enthusiastically, and a committee of two American women has recently been sent to France to assist the authorities of the French government in selecting the young women and in assigning them to particular institutions in this country.

This movement should be extended in the near future and should be made to include Great Britain and our other Allies, and also South America and Mexico. The Council hopes to render important service in this field of international relations in education.

I have already referred to the Council's interest in the proposed establishment of education. One of the first committees appointed was the Committee on a National Department of Education, headed by President Judson of the University of Chicago. The members of the Council are

unanimously in favor of this movement, altho most of them have not as yet been officially instructed by the associations which they represent. There is every reason to believe, however, that the movement will in due time receive the support of the great majority of institutions represented in the various associations which constitute the Emergency Council on Education.

THE COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION AND SPECIAL TRAINING

S. P. CAPEN, SPECIALIST IN HIGHER EDUCATION, NATIONAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION

One-fourth of the active force of a modern army is made up of technical specialists. These men must have had previous training or experience in mechanical lines. Altogether some two hundred and fifty trades and specialized occupations are carried on by the Army.

It has proved impossible to get by selective draft all the technical specialists needed without disrupting industrial conditions. Men must be specially trained to make good the discrepancy between the numbers furnisht by the draft and the numbers needed by the Army. Early in February, 1918, the Secretary of War created the Committee on Education and Special Training, to have charge of this training program. The Committee has organized training centers in 136 institutions, mostly engineering schools. These centers offer instruction two months in length in courses in some twenty different fundamental trades. The largest demand of the Army is for automobile mechanics, and 70 per cent of the training under the direction of the Committee is in this line.

Men are specially inducted into the service by the Provost Marshal General to take the courses organized by the Committee. They are under military discipline, uniformed, and paid. At present there are 34,278 enroled in the training centers.

The Committee has also studied the question of utilizing collegiate nstitutions for more advanst technical and general training. The Secretary of War issued an order on May 8, 1918, providing for the establishment of military training units at colleges and universities and offering an enlistment in the regular Army to students over eighteen volunteering for training in these institutions.

THE PRESENT EMERGENCY IN EDUCATION

GEORGE D. STRAYER, CHAIRMAN, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION COMMISSION ON THE EMERGENCY IN EDUCATION, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The achievements of college graduates in the armies of those who fight for the establishment of Democracy in the world is the greatest glory of higher institutions of learning.

All of our schools have been greatly influenst and in considerable measure controlled by our higher educational institutions. Our elementary schools and high schools have for the most part provided such courses of study as would enable the pupil at the end of the twelve-year period to satisfy the college-entrance requirements. With the very great increase in attendance in our secondary schools there has been some tendency in recent years to provide courses which look in the direction of efficient participation in modern social and industrial life. There is still the need, especially in our smaller high schools, for a reform in the course of study which can be brought about only as our higher educational institutions are willing to accept maturity and intellectual training along such lines as can best be provided, rather than the traditional college-entrance subjects.

The National Education Association Commission on the Emergency in Education is concerned with a reorganization of education which will take into account the varying capacities and abilities of boys and girls, and the limits of the work which can be done to best advantage even by the smaller secondary schools.

We have a situation in the United States at the present time which is truly alarming. Approximately one-fourth of all of the boys and girls in our elementary schools are being taught by teachers with little or no professional training and with little general education. We need to undertake a crusade in which higher educational institutions should participate, for the establishment of the ideal of properly trained and adequately paid teachers for every American boy and girl.

Our normal schools, which are higher educational institutions charged with the preparation of elementary-school teachers and to some extent teachers for the secondary schools, must be more liberally supported. When we come to have a national conception of education we shall realize the anomaly which at present exists in retaining the normal school as a state institution. National support should be provided, because teachers are trained for national service.

If our ideal of a properly equipt teacher for every American boy and girl is to be realized we shall not only have to provide more adequate support for teacher-training institutions, but must as well provide vastly increast sums of money for teachers' salaries. We cannot hope to have young men and young women spend four years in high school and from two to four years in a teacher-training institution with the expectation that they may receive the miserable salaries which are now paid in most of our school systems. One who has taken these six years of training, if he is fortunate, may receive as much as six to eight hundred dollars a year and has the prospect of a maximum of from one thousand to twelve hundred dollars a year after a long period of service.

In other fields a very much shorter period of training results in much larger rewards. It is not because we would argue in favor of increasing

our own salaries that we argue in favor of increasing salaries for teachers. It is only because we hope to place in every schoolroom a better teacher. It is only because we believe that the nation cannot afford to have any but the best-trained men and women in the schoolrooms. It is only because the future of America depends upon this investment that we would argue for more money for the support of our teachers.

The Commission is concerned as well with other problems in which our higher educational institutions must participate. The education of our immigrant population to the end that all may understand American institutions and subscribe unreservedly to the principles of our democracy before attaining citizenship needs the support of leaders in education everywhere.

The organization of physical education which will provide for the development of a more efficient people is the concernment of every true American. Training for national service by means of which all may come to recognize their obligation to the nation and subject themselves to the discipline and training which is necessary for those who would defend our free institutions must be undertaken in our higher educational institutions, for from them will come many of those upon whose shoulders must fall the burden of leadership.

It is fortunate indeed that even in time of war the contribution which the higher educational institution of the country can make to the national defense is recognized in the plan which continues the work of students in these institutions up to the point of completing their courses. There is a recognition in this action of the War Department of the demand for trained men, and of the need for higher education and trained intelligence in our Army and Navy.

A NEW EDUCATIONAL AGENCY

GUY STANTON FORD, EDUCATIONAL DIVISION, COMMITTEE ON PUBLIC INFORMATION, WASHINGTON, D.C.

One week after the war began President Wilson establisht a war emergency national university with the Secretaries of State, War, and Navy as its board of regents. It was called the Committee on Public Information.

For several months after its creation the public discussion in the press and in Congress pictured it as a prospective committee on censorship, an organ of repression. Gradually its constructive character as a national war Chautauqua, as an agent of expression and information became more and more apparent and important. For more than one year it has been at work with a registration that is only limited by the population of the United States.

In a war that is only in part the task of armies and navies, this Committee has striven to give the greatest publicity on the basis of accurate information concerning what America was doing in the war. If we were

to ask of our people sacrifices to the uttermost limit, such full publicity was the least that was due them.

The Committee has gone farther, and by every possible means it has sought to bring home to our people what we were fighting for, what were America's aims and purposes, how this war is nothing short of a life-and-death struggle for us. To do this it was equally important to reveal the spirit, institutions, and methods of the German military autocracy, with its faith in brute force and its worship of a state above morals and the dictates of common humanity.

To do this the Committee has enlisted every modern agency of publicity and education. Pictures, posters, films, the press, pamphlets, the schools, and the public platform have served it in a work that has now become world wide. For it has cast aside the old American indifference to foreign opinion and is now making the fight for public opinion in every neutral land.

Over 25,000,000 of its pamphlets have been read by our own people and made texts in schools and in teachers' reading circles.

During the coming year it will put itself even more at the service of the schools, for the schools and the teachers have as never before become parts of our national life. The teacher is enlisted in this war, and more and more the morale of the nation and the thinking in its homes will be determined by what she knows and teaches in this supreme crisis.

The Committee on Public Information and the schools have a great common war task to make an Americanized, nationalized American nation. If we, working with all other agencies, fail, then America will fail.

DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

PITTSBURGH MEETING

President—D. W. Hayes, president, State Normal School.....Peru, Nebr.
Vice-President—G. W. Nash, president, State Normal School.....Bellingham, Wash.
Secretary—H. A. Schofield, president, State Normal School.....Eau Claire, Wis.

FIRST SESSION—Tuesday Forenoon, July 2, 1918

The meeting was called to order at 9:00 a.m., and the following program was presented:

Music (9:00–9:15): Community and Patriotic Singing—Leader, Vincent B. Wheeler, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"Training for National Service in Normal Schools"—L. D. Coffman, dean, College of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.; Secretary, National Education Association Commission on National Emergency in Education.

"Coordination of Theory and Practice in Normal Schools"—H. A. Sprague, supervisor of practice, State Normal School, Newark, N.J.

Music—Helen M. Acheson, soprano, South High School, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"Report of the Committee on Federal Aid and the Training of Teachers"—John A. H. Keith, president, State Normal School, Indiana, Pa.

SECOND SESSION—Wednesday Forenoon, July 3, 1918

The meeting opened at 9:00 a.m., the following program being given:

Music (9:00–9:15): Community and Patriotic Singing—Leader, Vincent B. Wheeler, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"Relation of Extension Service to the National Emergency in Education"—W. A. Brandenburg, president, State Normal School, Pittsburg, Kan.

"The State Normal School and the Problem of Child Health"—W. S. Small, specialist in school hygiene, United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.

Music—Elizabeth Martin, contralto, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"Report of the Committee on Resolutions and Restatement of the Declaration of Principles"—J. G. Crabbe, president, State Teachers' College, Greeley, Colo., Chairman.

The following officers were elected:

President—D. B. Waldo, president, State Normal School, Kalamazoo, Mich.

Secretary—Anna M. Tibbetts, Fargo College, Fargo, N.Dak.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

TRAINING FOR NATIONAL SERVICE IN NORMAL SCHOOLS

L. D. COFFMAN, DEAN, COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.; SECRETARY, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION COMMISSION ON NATIONAL EMERGENCY IN EDUCATION

Sweeping tho the changes seem to be which are being brought about by this war, urgent tho the demands are, the wise leader will not too strenuously seek reform nor too tenaciously cling to tradition. To him the

disintegration of existing institutions will not be complete. The new will grow out of the old and will be built upon it. This will be particularly true of all phases of public education. Schools will not go out of existence. On the contrary, they will be needed more than ever. The need for trained teachers will be more acute than ever. The main excuse and primary purpose for the continuance and maintenance of normal schools will remain unchanged—their greatest possible service to the nation will be that of training teachers for the public schools.

This duty, however, will not be as simple in the future as it has been in the past. It will not be enough for the normal schools to send out teachers scholastically equipt; they must be familiar with and sensitive to the problems of instruction. Formalism in instruction is doomed. A new curriculum, rich with new materials and in vital contact with the shifting currents of social life, will not permit the disassociation of method from content. Ability to make mental diagnoses and to prescribe treatment will be a part of the professional equipment of the well-qualified teacher. The study of problems relating to the technique of teaching will be regarded as the daily duty of the successful teacher.

But the work of the normal schools will not end there. They will have an extended curriculum; this expansion will be required because of new obligations devolving upon them. It must be clear at least that the schools of tomorrow will be open to men and women as well as to boys and girls; it must also be clear that they will be open day and night and more months of the year in many places. The need of providing Americanization courses for immigrants, the removal of adult illiteracy, and the increasing demands for vocational training will force these changes upon the schools.

America, with wide-open doors and extended hands, has welcomed the foreigner to her shores, sublime in the blind faith that she was the melting-pot of the nations. The present crisis has brought us to a halt and caused us to take stock. We find that there are nearly thirty-two and a half million persons in the United States who are foreign-born, or one or both of whose parents were foreign-born. This is 35.2 per cent of the population. Literally hundreds of thousands of these, altho enjoying all the freedom, liberties, and rights, with the exception of suffrage, of native-born Americans, have nevertheless declined to become American citizens. But America has reacht the place where she should not be regarded as an asylum for the unfortunate unless they wish to become her defenders. America has been a polyglot nation; now she must become a unified nation. This is not a local problem; it is a national and an educational problem. The normal schools, if they have caught the spirit of the times and the drift of events, should have something to contribute to this movement. They should assume some leadership in it.

Another factor tending to focus the attention of the nation upon education is adult illiteracy. It is widespread and is confined to no particular

region. About seventy-seven out of every one thousand persons in the United States are illiterate. The percentage of illiteracy among the negroes and native whites has been steadily decreasing wherever drastic action has been taken, but the percentage of illiteracy among the immigrants has been steadily increasing.

No democracy can be safe or efficient when more than five million of its people are illiterate. Mass education on high levels is essential to collective thinking, and collective thinking about common problems of national importance is the ultimate safeguard of democracy.

The schools are the only adequate agency for the elimination of illiteracy. The instruction must be carried on by regularly trained teachers. The wasteful efforts of the past, due to a lack of unified action of all the agencies coping with this problem, must be avoided in the future.

A third factor calling for an extension of the public schools and imposing additional burdens and obligations upon the teacher-training agencies of the countries is the need for trained persons in commercial and industrial employments. It is clear that the war may be won by that army which has the most and the best-trained mechanicians. Every cantonment has been turned into a great industrial school. Literally hundreds of unit courses have been organized for the training of mechanicians. These courses will be taught largely in evening and continuation schools. Here and there they will be taught in day schools. They will not all be dropt after the war. Many of them will be and should be continued. Teachers must be trained to direct these courses. Those normal schools that are so located and so equipt as to provide these teachers should begin at once to prepare for this work.

But there is another form of service that is far more important than these; in fact, it will determine their character. I refer to the new point of view that is developing in education as a direct outgrowth of the forces that have been set loose by the war. Hitherto American impulses have been individualistic and personal. Social consciousness, social justice, and social imagination have been regarded as theories and conceptions of idle dreamers or impractical professors. The lack of these qualities has jeopardized our social structure and constantly undermined the foundation of American government. The universal support the government is receiving in promoting war activities indicates that the old ideas of individual opportunity and personal initiative will hereafter be thought of in terms of social obligation and social responsibility.

In England and France there are already organizations engaged in the study of these problems of reconstruction. The work of the British Ministry of Reconstruction and the program of the English Labor party are particularly illuminating and instructive. The English program reaches far beyond the problems attending the actual demobilization of the soldiers. It involves taking stock of British resources and collecting data on problems

relating to transportation, electric power, housing and town planning, afforestation, public health, labor exchange, organization of industry, standards of living, insurance against unemployment, and a reorganization of education and recreation. It is time that we were at work upon similar problems. It is time that we caught something of the new social point of view. It is time that educational institutions were preparing themselves for leadership in this new work.

The new point of view will be social, not individual; concerned primarily with the common good, not primarily with personal welfare; altruistic, not selfish; it will emphasize felt responsibilities, not "felt needs"; duty and obligation, not personal liberty and individual freedom. The interpretation of this point of view and its dissemination is clearly a function of the normal schools.

COORDINATION OF THEORY AND PRACTICE IN NORMAL SCHOOLS

H. A. SPRAGUE, SUPERVISOR OF PRACTICE, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, NEWARK, N.J.

In our democracy the necessity of having our normal schools produce well-trained educators is second only to that of having our army and navy produce efficient defenders of our ideals. Conservation of time, energy, and materials must be the aim in both of these fields.

The fundamental requirements in avoiding waste are, first, a disposition to cooperate and, secondly, an organization that will procure the most effective result from all who participate. A war department or a normal school which is productive of jealousies, dissensions, and the spirit which says, "You go your way, I'll go mine," is lacking in a disposition to cooperate and therefore is wasteful and undemocratic; just as great ineffectiveness results from lack of unity thru organization. From the standpoint of organization conservatism must not be considered synonymous with conservation.

Teachers have said that theory and practice are two different considerations. If theory is to be purposeful and practice rational, this cannot be true. Personal interviews were conducted with thirty-seven state-normal-school principals, instructors, or supervisors in twenty-two different states. It has been noted that these representatives have said practically that there is little or no direct relationship provided between their departments of theory and of practice. In other words, students in the theory department study professional subjects for over a year and a half and then go out into the profession for observation and practice under different directors. Consequently the students' partly digested theories are often neglected and forgotten. If this is true, then normal-school officials have a war-time duty toward conservation in education which is quite commensurate with that of the officials in our war department.

The principal activities thru which theory and practice in normal schools might cooperate are as follows: demonstration lessons, organized observation, and practice teaching. The principal parties to maintain cooperative relationships and uniformity of principles are theory teachers, student teachers, demonstration teachers, observation-school teachers, practice or critic teachers, supervisors, and principals.

The three pages of data which have been distributed show some of the vital phases of these relationships. All data were collected by means of personal interviews.

In considering demonstration lessons it is interesting to note that 40 per cent of the normal schools do not make use of this means of helping theory to function. In the great majority of cases theory teachers never teach lessons to test or demonstrate their own theories, and in 32 per cent of the cases they do not attend the demonstration exercises that are given.

As to organized observation as a means of illustrating and clarifying the instruction in theory, it will be noted that ten out of thirty-seven schools do not maintain this type of work, and in the twenty-seven schools where observation courses are conducted they vary in length from ten to two hundred hours. In most cases the courses are directed by the supervisors or principals of the practice departments. In five cases there is a very direct relationship between the theory instruction and the observation. However, in 55 per cent of the cases those who teach lessons for observation do not use intentionally the methods and principles advocated by the theory department.

The next point to be noted is the actual working relation between theory instruction and practice teaching. In 65 per cent of the schools studied theory instructors have nothing to do with the students' plans for teaching, in 57 per cent theory teachers do not observe or consult student teachers, and in 59 per cent students are not sent to theory teachers for assistance. It may be noted that in about 56 per cent of the cases theory teachers and critic teachers do not have meetings or appointed consultations.

Supervisors of practice teaching are in a position to unify the work of the departments of theory and of practice. It may be noted under IV in the outline in your hands, that in about 50 per cent of the cases supervisors of practice do not visit the theory department nor necessarily become familiar with the methods which they advocate. In five cases out of thirty-seven no one is engaged to occupy the position as supervisor of practice teaching. This may be lookt upon as a point of strength, as, for instance, in three schools where the only supervisors of practice are the theory teachers. In twenty of the thirty-three remaining normal schools the supervisors of practice do not have meetings with the instructors in the theory department, and in nineteen cases they make no effort to bring critic teachers and theory teachers together for conferences. In twenty cases they are supposed to represent

the theory department; however, as has been noted, they are not sufficiently familiar with the work of the theory department to carry out its directions.

It seems impossible that there should be such a large percentage of waste in time, energy, and money as these data signify. Nevertheless it may be true that there are comparatively few intensively organized systems which aim to conserve the efforts of all concerned. Individualism is the policy in many struggling institutions. Very often teachers speak with considerable pride about the distinctive features of their theories or methods. In the same schools students must often discuss their profound confusion. Certainly organization and cooperation should provide for all that is distinctively strong and at the same time avoid confusion and waste. So long as only the students have to suffer from the losses reorganization may be long delayed. The passive conservative attitude of school authorities is shown by the fact that in twenty-one of the thirty-seven schools studied there is no special concern shown regarding the very apparent lack of coordination between thinking or memorizing and doing.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON FEDERAL AID AND THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

JOHN A. H. KEITH, PRESIDENT, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, INDIANA, PA.

Your Committee begs to report as follows:

I. We tried to get at the attitude of normal-school presidents and principals toward national aid to institutions engaged in the preparation of teachers. A letter was sent to each. The replies received indicate that practically every one of them favors national aid for this purpose. A few are doubtful, fearing too great interference from the national government. Some questions were raised as to the particular way in which the aid was to be administered. It is safe to say, however, that over 90 per cent of the normal-school presidents and principals of the country are in favor of a reasonable plan of national aid to institutions engaged in the preparation of teachers.

II. Your Committee has cooperated in every possible way with the National Education Association Commission on Necessary Readjustments during and after the War. This Commission has been more than courteous to us; it has been genuinely and generously interested in our cause. It has invited us to share in its deliberations and has listened to our statement of the case. On invitation of the chairman of its subcommittee on the Preparation of Teachers, Dr. W. C. Bagley, we have prepared a brief, an expanded statement of the brief, and have compiled statistical data relative to the work of state normal schools and to the distribution of national aid to the

several states, on the basis of certain assumptions that had been approved by the National Education Association Commission.

III. We are able to report that the bill prepared by the National Education Association Commission and ready for submission to Congress contains provisions regarding national aid to institutions engaged in the preparation of teachers which we believe will be acceptable to the normal schools of the country. These provisions, so far as they relate to teacher preparation, are substantially as follows:

1. A maximum of $15,000,000 annually is appropriated—

> to cooperate with the states in preparing teachers for the schools, particularly rural schools . . . . to encourage a more nearly universal preparation of prospective teachers, to extend the facilities for the improvement of teachers already in service, to encourage, thru the establishment of scholarships and otherwise, a greater number of talented young people to make adequate preparation for public-school service, and otherwise to provide an increast number of trained and competent teachers.

2. This sum is to be apportioned to the several states in the proportion which the numbers of teachers in the public schools of the respective states bear to the total number of public-school teachers in the United States, not including outlying possessions, said apportionment to be based on figures collected by the Department of Education, which is created as an executive department of the government with a secretary, who is a member of the President's cabinet, assistant secretaries, etc.

3. But this amount of money is not an untrammeled annuity. The amount spent by state and local authorities for teacher preparation in 1919 is taken as a standard base. If a state spends more in 1920 or in any subsequent year than it did in 1919, the national government will match this additional expenditure dollar for dollar up to the limit of the allotment previously indicated. The fundamental purpose of the proposal is to encourage the states to do more in the matter of preparing teachers, and the encouragement consists in the offer to pay one-half of the additional cost up to the limit of a state's share in the $15,000,000 provided in the bill. But even this offered encouragement is further limited by excluding expenditures for the purchase, erection, preservation, or repair of any building, or for the purchase or rental of land, or for the support of any religiously or privately owned, endowed, or conducted school or college. And still further it is provided that funds apportioned under the act shall be expended "only for public institutions and agencies owned and controlled by the state, or county, or local authority, as may be provided under the laws controlling and regulating the public educational institutions and agencies of said state."

4. The Secretary of Education is authorized to frame uniform rules and regulations for carrying out the provisions of the act, to prescribe a plan of keeping accounts of educational expenditures, and to appoint an auditor.

5. Since it is wholly futile to try to get young people to prepare for teaching unless the economic rewards of teaching are reasonable, the bill provides $50,000,000 "to cooperate with the states in the efforts to equalize educational opportunities." The expenditure of this money is limited as already indicated. It will therefore be expended on operating expenses, of which teachers' salaries is the large item. This amount is about one-seventh of the total paid to teachers in 1915–16. If it is met by an equal amount by the several states, salaries could be increast between 20 and 30 per cent. Such an increase would give teaching an economic status which it has never had in this country.

IV. It is, of course, impossible for your Committee to know how these provisions will appeal to Congress and to the country at large. It is evident, however, that our people are thinking nationally now instead of locally. It would be a great misfortune to create a bureaucracy that would destroy the autonomy of the states and reduce all public education to a fixt routine. On the other hand, it would be equally unfortunate to allow the self-interest of states and communities to prevent the development of individuals to the level at which participation in national life is possible. It is the old difficulty of "the devil and the deep sea." Your Committee believes that the proposals now embodied in the bill will secure the advantages of national aid and avoid the disadvantages.

V. We who are particularly concerned with the preparation of teachers in state normal schools must view this matter in its large aspects. Our schools are organically parts of the public-school systems of the several states, even tho they are not so designated in the statutes. And they are also integral parts of our national system of education, even tho we do not have a national system establisht by law. The national government has aided and is aiding public education in the several states. What is proposed, therefore, is only an extension of what we are now doing. Every normal-school man is interested in the removal of illiteracy, the Americanization of immigrants, the equalization of educational opportunities in the several states, the development of physical and health education, and the better preparation of more teachers. These things are not merely local and state matters; they are national concerns. Are we real Americans or just camouflaged aliens? Are our loyalty, our interest, our effort, and our insight bounded by state lines? If they are not so limited we should all be able to get behind a proposal that promises so much of national betterment.

The normal school stands for a professional preparation for teaching. Unfortunately, in nearly every state, the right to teach is controlled by statutes that set up an academic qualification. Law and medicine have been able to get the legal phraseology to include professional qualifications. That is what we need for teachers also. Your Committee believes that national aid for teacher preparation will establish professional qualifications

for those who enter upon teaching in every state of the Union. We regard this as absolutely necessary to the realization of the democracy for whose preservation in the world we are pouring out so much of blood and treasure.

JOHN A. H. KEITH
D. B. WALDO
JOHN R. KIRK
Committee

THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS AND THE PROBLEMS OF CHILD HEALTH

W. S. SMALL, SPECIALIST IN SCHOOL HYGIENE, UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D.C.

"It is the business of the board of health to look after *disease*. It is the business of the board of education to look after *education*. It is *nobody's* business to look after the children."

I quote this statement from a recent letter written by a zealous and successful organizer of "school health work." A shocking statement, is it not, and a trifle disconcerting? Have we not comforted ourselves with the idea that the chief concern of education is "looking after the children"? Particularly have the normal schools comforted themselves with this flattering assurance. Naturally we are shockt when we are told by one who observes and speaks dispassionately that we are fooling ourselves.

Such a statement, you say, expresses a sadly perverted view of the meaning of education. True, but does it not express a sadly true picture of education as it is frequently practist? In a mediaeval Latin book we read *Johannem Latinam docet magister*, "The master teaches John Latin." It makes all the difference in the world whether the master teaches Latin to John (emphasis on Latin) or whether the master teaches John by means of Latin (emphasis on John). Is not our school practice very commonly teaching Latin to John rather than teaching John by means of Latin? Academic results rather than human growth? Even in the matter of health-teaching and physical education formalism is not unknown. Is not my correspondent at least half justified in his conclusion that looking after the children is nobody's business?

Confession is good for the soul. It will be good for the normal-school soul to confess that the normal school has paid little attention to the fundamental problem of conserving and promoting health. There is a great deal of lip service—*mens sana in sano corpore*—repeated at frequent intervals; but the records show that when it comes to actual recognition of physical education and its functions in the normal development of human beings the normal schools are deficient.

Partial returns have been received from an inquiry on physical education in normal schools recently sent by the Bureau of Education to all state,

county, and city normal schools—145 out of about 250. Incomplete analysis of the returns from these 145 schools gives the following certain data:

1. Number requiring health certificate at entrance..... 44
2. Number requiring medical examination..... 68
3. Number requiring health certificate for graduation..... 24
4. Number requiring physical exercise of all students..... 124
   Gymnastics..... 100
   Dancing..... 55
   Athletics..... 47
   Games..... 102
5. Number requiring practice teaching:
   a) In calisthenics..... 74
   b) In gymnastics..... 68
   c) In dancing..... 63
   d) In athletics..... 40
   e) In games..... 91
6. Number having special teachers of physical training:
   a) Male..... 53
   b) Female..... 111
7. Number having gymnasiums..... 110
8. Number having swimming-pools..... 23

Complete fulfilment of all the following conditions is necessary if teachers are to be prepared to promote the health and physical vigor of their pupils: physico-medical examination at entrance and annually, at least, during the course; health certificate for graduation; daily physical exercise, at least one hour, of an enlivening and joy-producing kind; practice teaching of such exercise for children; playgrounds and gymnasiums necessary for such exercise; practical study of hygiene as exemplified in school life and environment; instruction in normal physical diagnosis.

From the data given above and from other inquiries and observations I am persuaded that complete fulfilment of these conditions in normal schools is rare. A few schools meet all of the conditions with a considerable degree of thoroness, more meet some of the conditions well and are short on the rest or meet them inadequately, and others meet all these conditions inadequately or not at all.

There is light on the horizon. Since 1914 eight states have enacted compulsory, state-wide physical-education laws. Most of them contemplate physical education in the broad sense indicated above. Some of these, tho compulsory in form, are hardly more than permissive in substance; but they all point to a new emphasis on physical education in the normal schools. Several of them specifically include the normal schools in the application of the law. In New York, New Jersey, and California, at least, the vivifying effect of these laws is becoming evident. In some instances readjustment of programs and ideals will be necessary. Three things will be required: (1) time, (2) careful planning of the course of study in physical education, and (3) broadly prepared teachers.

I have already suggested a minimum of one hour a day of enlivening and joy-producing exercise. This serves a double purpose: (1) to conserve and develop the health of the students and (2) to produce the raw material of personal experience without which it is hopeless to undertake to train teachers to teach.

Complementary to this at least one hour (period) per day should be given to instruction in the principles and practice of physical education. Not to enter deeply into details, under "principles" must be included the basic sciences anatomy, physiology, and hygiene—general, individual, and group; and the values of physical education—educational, social, civic, and economic.

Under "practice," certainly practice in hygienic inspection of school plant, in cooperation with medical inspectors and nurses, in conduct-of-posture examinations and tests, in direction of drills, gymnastics, and games, and in community recreation projects.

What we must learn is that this part of the preparation of teachers is of first importance, not an accessory to the formularies of mental development and discipline. War is a sifter of all things. Don't waste your time apologizing for the fact that from 20 to 30 per cent of the children pass from the schools carrying with them the handicap of remediable defect and undevelopt mental and muscular power. Put an end to it. Lift from the schools the reproach that it is "nobody's business to look after the children."

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

ATLANTIC CITY MEETING

OFFICERS

President—D. W. Hayes, president, State Normal School.....Peru, Nebr.
Vice-President—G. W. Nash, president, State Normal School.....Bellingham, Wash.
Secretary—H. A. Schofield, president, State Normal School.....Eau Claire, Wis.

FIRST SESSION—Tuesday Afternoon, February 26, 1918

The following program was given at this meeting:

"The Function of the Normal School in the Rebuilding of Civilization"—Mary C. C. Bradford, state superintendent of public instruction, Denver, Colo.

"Bringing the College to the Normal School"—George M. Philips, principal, State Normal School, West Chester, Pa.

"Prepare Rather than Train for Teaching"—A. E. Winship, editor, *Journal of Education*, Boston, Mass.

Dr. E. G. Cooley presented the work of the Junior Red Cross.

A motion was made and carried that a committee of three be appointed to investigate the problem of federal aid for elementary schools and to report at the Pittsburgh meeting.

President Keith, of Indiana, Pa., presented the following resolution:

Resolved, That the Normal School Section favors the principle of federal aid to state-controlled teacher-training institutions, and to the end that the interests of the normal schools be properly considered in any legislation looking to the formulation of any such

plan the chairman is hereby directed to appoint a committee of three to represent the normal schools in this and any other related matters.

The resolution was past.

President Showalter presented a resolution as follows:

Resolved, That we favor federal aid for common-school education.

The resolution was past and the conference adjourned.

O. M. Elliott
Secretary pro tem

SECOND SESSION—Thursday Afternoon, February 28, 1918

The meeting was called to order by David Felmley, Illinois Normal School, acting president. The following committees were announst:

COMMITTEE ON NORMAL SCHOOL FEDERAL AID

John A. H. Keith, president, State Normal School, Indiana, Pa.
D. B. Waldo, president, Western State Normal School, Kalamazoo, Mich.
John R. Kirk, president, State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

J. G. Crabbe, president, Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colo.
Charles McKenney, president, Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich.
George S. Dick, president, State Normal School, Kearney, Nebr.

This committee was to report at the Pittsburgh meeting.

The following program was presented:

"Distinction between Academic and Professional Subjects"—William C. Bagley, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

"Maintaining an Adequate Supply of Teachers without Lowering Standards"—J. Asbury Pitman, principal, State Normal School, Salem, Mass.; Thomas W. Butcher, president, Kansas State Normal School, Emporia, Kans.

"A Standard Normal Course with a Standard Diploma"—N. D. Showalter, president, State Normal School, Cheney, Wash.; A. J. Matthews, president, Tempe Normal School of Arizona, Tempe, Ariz.

The general discussion was participated in by: John Keith, Indiana, Pa.; M. M. Parks, Milledgeville, Ga.; A. G. Crane, Minot, N.D.

The conference adjourned.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

BRINGING THE COLLEGE TO THE NORMAL SCHOOL

GEORGE M. PHILIPS, PRINCIPAL, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,
WEST CHESTER, PA.

Four years ago, during a lecture on the history of education at the West Chester State Normal School, by Dr. Frank P. Graves, then a professor in the educational department of the University of Pennsylvania and now dean of its school of education, the thought came to me, "Why not have regular college courses here by such men as Professor Graves every year?"

I spoke of the matter to Dr. Graves, and he thought that the plan was a good one and could be carried out. I took the matter up with the dean of extension work and made arrangements to begin the following year.

During 1914–15 we carried on two such half-year courses during the first semester of the college year and two others during the second semester. During 1915–16 we had six such courses, during 1916–17 we had eight, and during the present year we are giving six, as we have found by experience that that is about the right number.

The professors come from the University of Pennsylvania to the normal school and give two-hour lectures one evening each week, presenting the same lectures which they give to their classes at the university itself, and giving them the same amount of time. At the close of the course they give a regular college examination in the subject, and those who pass this examination get one unit of college credit for each semester's work in any subject.

We exercise great care in the selection of the subjects of these courses and still greater care in the selection of the professors who give them. Unless the professors who give these courses are first-class teachers the interest will soon die out, and the plan will fail. We choose courses which are interesting as well as important to teachers. We find that courses in English, which usually include the various courses in contemporary or at least modern English and American literature; courses in history, especially modern or contemporary history; courses in sociology, especially practical social problems and community civics; and courses in geography are most in demand, altho for the past three years we have maintained a course in college mathematics, including analytical geometry and higher algebra, quite successfully.

These subjects, as far as possible, are substituted for the same subjects in the normal-school course, and that is a factor in the success of any course, but others are outside of and additional to the normal-school course. The latter are not put officially in their diplomas but are noted on them by the authorities of the school. The names of such of these students as pass the college examinations, and with few exceptions they all pass them, are printed in the catalog of the university, practically as special students, which is a decided encouragement to the scheme.

It should be noted that the Pennsylvania state normal schools offer no college courses and give no college degrees, and there is no present tendency toward introducing them into these schools. Pennsylvania has so many good, well-establisht colleges that there is felt to be no great need of adding to them. The normal schools have a four-year course, planned by the superintendent of public instruction and the principals of the normal schools. This is a combined academic and pedagogical course. Graduates of four-year high schools enter the third year of the course and generally graduate in two years, and a few of the best graduates of three-year high schools are also able to graduate in two years. No student can graduate without an attendance of at least two years, except such as have completed one or more years of college work in a college of good standing. These *may*

graduate after one year's attendance. Students who are not high-school graduates may be admitted to the normal schools but must expect to spend from four to five years there in order to graduate.

Students who wish to take these college courses—and it is practically confined to students in the third and fourth years of the course—are permitted to do so only when it is believed that they have time to do this extra or substitute work. These students pay directly to the university the regular fees for this work, which is $10 for each half-year course. This year the university required an enrolment fee of $2.50 from each student, but this is paid but once by any student. I understand that the professors receive all these fees except the enrolment fee as extra compensation for such extra work, and when the classes are large, as they frequently are, it is a considerable addition to their income.

The plan is working very satisfactorily. It gives the more capable and better-prepared students an opportunity to use their extra time to the best advantage. It adds valuable subjects to their curriculum, gives them experience in college work, prepares them for college work in the future, and gives them credit toward the completion of a college course, which of course can be transferred to any other college. This is a great incentive toward going to college.

Graduates who have taken these college courses here and are now teaching or in college are enthusiastic about them. Several have secured better teaching positions than they could otherwise have obtained, sometimes positions which only college graduates have heretofore been getting, or places which normal-school graduates without teaching experience have never secured before. Others have been led to go to college who otherwise would not have gone, and several who have thus entered college have found that these courses taken here have enabled them to save a year in the completion of a college course. All say that these courses broadened their knowledge and outlook on life and education, added interest and zest to their teaching, and made them better and more successful teachers.

As will be seen from the increase in numbers of those taking these courses, they are growing in popularity and value every year. Our faculty, as well as students, especially graduates, who have taken these courses here, feels that the plan is a great success, and I believe that it will grow in usefulness and efficiency.

PREPARE RATHER THAN TRAIN FOR TEACHING

A. E. WINSHIP, EDITOR, "JOURNAL OF EDUCATION," BOSTON, MASS.

In order that I may be entirely frank and fearless in my address and that you may listen as frankly and fearlessly, let me say that I challenge anyone to put in a claim for greater loyalty to normal schools, or greater devotion thereto, or more persistent activity in their behalf. I speak as a lover of normal schools to lovers of normal schools.

Training is in no wise applicable to what a normal school should do for young people who are preparing to teach. Training is making anything go in the direction in which you want it to go until it will always go as you train it to go. You train a young tree, an elephant, a lion, a dog, a rat—if you can find a rat that will be trained.

If the normal school is not to train its students, what is it to do? Why, simply prepare them to teach. This means scientifically that the normal school should have an educational budget system. The budget system in finance is righting more wrongs than any other scheme ever invented. Before the day of the budget system a city council was askt to vote money for the things it was willing to vote money for and then used it as it pleased. The streets are in horrible shape. The public will stand an extra $50,000 for street repairs, but, once appropriated for streets, $10,000 of it at least will be used for some junket or other. No city ever let the public know what became of the money. All the public knew was that $50,000 was appropriated for street repairs; it did not know that $10,000 was transferred to "miscellaneous expenses." The budget system demands that a careful survey be made of all needs and of all revenues, and not a dollar is appropriated that is not in sight in the revenue and not a dollar can be transferred to any other account. An educational budget system studies the actual needs of teachers who begin teaching in a given class of school in which the young women are to teach. Then a careful study is made of the time in which she must be prepared for the work, and so much time and only so much time as is adjudged necessary is given to that preparation.

The first great gain in all this will be the realization of the fact that no normal school can in two years prepare anyone to teach in both a rural and a city school. It will put a stop to the vicious practice of allowing a girl to get her two years' experience for a city school in a country school. An educational budget for a rural school is no more a preparation for a city school than a course in a law school is a good preparation for the practice of medicine.

What does a rural teacher need in order to succeed in a rural school? What preparation does she need? In the rough, one-third of her need is ability to deal with the community, young and old, in solving problems of nature and human nature; and the other two-thirds of her need is preparation, one-third of which should be devoted to the art of teaching and one-third to psychology, history of education, scholarship, and the development of her personality.

With a faculty of twelve, four would give their time to helping students equip themselves to grapple with the problems of nature and of human nature; four to principles, methods, devices, administration, and pedagogy; and four to psychology, history of education, improvement in scholarship and health, and the development of personality.

From the standpoint of an educational budget there will be no department of mathematics, of geography, of English, of biology, of chemistry, of physics, of literature, of drawing, of music, of penmanship, of physical culture, of any subjects in a two years' course for rural teachers.

There are few things as absurd as for a normal school to have a faculty of twelve varieties of specialists, all graduates of colleges where they majored in the subject which they teach in the normal school. They have taught their specialty from five to forty-five years. They study all the time along their line of specializing, and no one of these would for a minute admit that *she* could teach any subject but her specialty. And yet a high-school girl must take twelve courses under specialists who cannot or will not teach more than one subject, and said high-school girl, after two years with these specialists, is expected to go out and teach the whole twelve subjects from the ideal standards of the twelve specialists. Is this not the height of the ridiculously absurd?

The educational budget will require that at least a third of the students' time be devoted to agriculture, horticulture, agronomy, animal industry, forestry, gardening, butter-making, and cheese-making. The students must learn all about soil and climate, fertilizing and plowing, planting and cultivating, pruning and spraying, seeding and weeding, harvesting grains and grasses, fruits and vegetables, drying and canning, packing and shipping. They must know what crops to raise on high land and low land, on wet land and dry land, on sand land and clay land; when to plow four inches deep and when fourteen inches; in what month and on what week and day to plant each crop for that section. They must know all varieties of grains and grasses, fruits and berries, roots and radishes, and the significance of each as to soil, fertilizer, and market.

They must know all breeds, thorobreds, and grades of horses, mules, cows, sheep, pigs, and poultry. They must know all about the local, national, and world markets, and all about transportation by land and water, by express, parcel post, and freight; all about financing the farm, banking, accounting, discounts, and commissions. There is also much to be known about buildings, fencing, draining, ditching, and automobile repairing. Then there is a great deal of science and art in buying, using, and repairing machinery. All these and innumerable other problems of the farm the teacher will know when the normal schools are run on an educational budget system for rural-school teachers.

The teacher in a rural community must prepare children thru education to enjoy country life and profit by it. All this is child's play in comparison with preparing teachers to deal with human nature as it exists in a rural community. It requires the wisdom of a statesman to handle a school district of from twenty to forty families. Forty families have eighty different specimens of human nature, each specimen with fifty-seven varieties of temper, impulse, envy, jealousy, frivolity, conscience, and

temperament. Many of these forty homes represent rows internal and more rows external. Every school district has a thousand possible combinations of trouble, political, religious, domestic, educational, industrial, commercial, financial, social, conventional, individual, and personal.

There are people who are poor, others who are rich, and still others who are neither rich nor poor; there are people who worship cheapness and those who worship spending; there are those who are superstitious and those who ridicule superstition; there is an infinite variety of prejudices which are nowhere as senseless and intense as in the country. Then there are likely to be Baptists and Presbyterians, Congregationalists and Methodists, Quakers and Shakers, Universalists and Unitarians, Episcopalians and Christian Scientists, evangelists and atheists, Campbellites and possibly Christians. It is vastly more important for a teacher's success that she know how to be neutral or neutrally religious than that she know the order of the planets and the gyrations of the moon.

The teachers who have that third of the student-teacher's time to be devoted to all methods of teaching twelve subjects have a loafing time in comparison with those who have the problems of nature and human nature of a rural district. And the teachers of student-teachers who have a third of their time for the teaching of administration, psychology, theoretic pedagogy, history of education, scholarship subjects, personal health, manners, morals, and personality have an easier time. When normal schools cease trying to train artificially, and devote themselves to the preparation of teachers to meet the needs of children for the community and of the community for the children, the educational millennium will have begun.

There is neither time nor need to speak of the educational budget for the preparation of city teachers. In a way the normal school will be more dejected after it faces this budget ordeal, because normal schools have been largely focust on the preparation of elementary teachers. There will be little left of traditional devotion when the educational budget for the city school is workt out.

I am advocating nothing, I am not intentionally starting a crusade, but I am saying just *to you*, and not to the public, that you should eliminate that word *training* from your vocabulary. Not only the word, but all that it stands for, should go. Instead of training a teacher to do artificial things, the normal school must study fully, fearlessly, and frankly the needs of the community as a class to which the teachers are to go and must *prepare* the teachers to serve those communities.

Until seventy-five years ago the only requirement ever made of a teacher by way of qualification for teaching was that he know the subject he was to teach. Of course that frightful condition even now inheres in some colleges and universities, but the doom of that absurdity was signaled about seventy-five years ago, when the dawn lightly purpled the sky in Massachusetts

under the brilliant leadership of Horace Mann. Tardily at first the dawn hung on the eastern horizon, but it persisted in enriching the eastern sky until after about a third of a century one university—Michigan—braved the ire of all scholastic institutions by introducing courses in education. Then the victory for teacher preparation was achieved.

At once a new demand was made upon teachers. The art of teaching was now an old story, and teachers were *to make schools*. Until forty years ago there was nothing done for the school; everything was for the class and the child. There was not a schoolroom lighted on a child's left side unless by accident. There was no requirement of adequate light, or heat, or air space. There was no attention paid to sanitation unless some city happened to have a crank upon the board of education, and he was voted a nuisance. There was not a jacketed stove in a country school. There were no bubble fountains, no individual drinking-cups, no individual towels, no paper towels, no hot luncheons, no schoolyard improvement, no school garden, no supervised play, no five-acre schoolyard. In short, nothing was done for the school as such. About eight years ago this emphasis upon the school reacht its height. Numerous cities have state laws requiring many of these school virtues.

When legislatures took charge of school equipment for school perfection a fourth great era dawned in American education, and it has come like a whirlwind. Now the school and the teacher are for the community. The community trail is as far above the triumph of the school as the idea of the school was above the work with a class, or as the triumph of teacher preparation was above a mere knowledge of a subject.

With this glorious new day came entirely new opportunities and responsibilities for the normal schools. They must hasten to prepare leaders for community improvement, for community singing, for community school gardens, and for innumerable other community activities.

MAINTAINING AN ADEQUATE SUPPLY OF TEACHERS WITHOUT LOWERING STANDARDS

I. J. ASBURY PITMAN, PRINCIPAL, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, SALEM, MASS.

The educational system of America is facing a crisis whose importance will be more fully appreciated during the long period of reconstruction and readjustment which must immediately follow the war than it is in these days at the beginning of our participation in it. Some of us who are actually engaged in educational work are aware of the gravity of the situation, but it is probable that even we greatly underestimate its seriousness. The great majority of the American people do not yet fully realize that we are at war. In consequence of abnormal economic conditions salaries and wages in

practically all other occupations have increast far beyond the compensation of the teacher. The government or the private employer needs the thousand-dollar teacher who is receiving but five hundred dollars and takes her at the current market value of her services. Neither party to the contract can be blamed; probably both are acting for the country's best interests.

The schools are daily losing the services of women for this reason. Daily, men are leaving the teaching profession for voluntary enlistment in some branch of military service or are quite as cheerfully responding to the call of the government thru the selective draft. We who have to do with the training of teachers must give our attention to the recruiting of young men and women to fill these vacancies, and what we do must be done quickly.

The membership in the secondary schools and colleges is being rapidly depleted, and the normal schools are already suffering to an extent that is becoming alarming. Before the war the normal-school enrolment thruout the country had been steadily increasing, and in many states the rate of growth in membership had been rapid. At the opening of the present school year the registration had fallen from 18 to 20 per cent below that of the previous year, and the number of withdrawals since that time has probably been greater than ever before. The ever-increasing cost of living and the temptation to earn abnormally high wages combine to reduce the membership of all classes of teacher-training schools to a minimum.

The most serious problem that the normal school is facing is the maintenance of the necessary supply of teachers without lowering the present standard of efficiency.

Under any but the most exceptional conditions present standards of preparation and of academic and professional attainment should be maintained, regardless of diminisht membership. The normal school cannot be made more attractive by lowering its standards. It is probable, however, that the adoption of the plan of admitting by certificate from approved high schools instead of by general, prescribed examinations would slightly increase the size of entering classes without lowering the quality of the student's preparation. Similarly the substitution of comprehensive examinations for the old plan of admission by points, for such as must take examinations, would be a means of attracting more students who would be quite as well prepared as those who have heretofore been examined in a larger number of subjects.

We must make a greater effort to secure the cooperation of the superintendents of schools and of the principals and faculties of the high schools in interesting their pupils in the possibilities of the teaching profession. They must be convinst of the urgent need of more trained teachers and of better material than the normal school, under present conditions of competition with the industries, can attract without their active support.

Superintendents and principals must be encouraged to apply the principles of vocational guidance as they have never done before and to help us to enrol larger numbers of promising young men and women whose services will be sorely needed during and after the close of the war.

There must be a real enrichment of the normal-school curriculum thru the establishment of special departments and the introduction of elective courses. New departments are required to meet the steadily increasing needs of a more highly specialized system of public education; electives are necessary to supplement the work of the secondary school if we are to abandon the old policy of admitting only from prescribed preparatory courses.

Confidence in and respect for the normal school must be increast thru the employment and retention of the most efficient instructors who may be available in elementary school, secondary school, or college. This implies the payment of higher salaries. The public cannot afford to adopt any other policy. It is a part of our business to convince them that in a time of great national peril the schools should be the last agency to be neglected.

The normal school must be properly advertised thru the catalog and possibly thru the public press. The catalog should be made as attractive as possible, but it should be remembered that its dignity is one of its chief attractions. It should be circulated freely thru the high schools and otherwise. Proper advertising in newspapers and magazines is likely to bring some return. The judicious publication of school news is of greater value. The name of the school must be kept before the public.

The cost of the student's education should be kept at the lowest limit that will insure healthful conditions of living. Provision should be made for securing employment for students who must work their way thru school. The establishment of an employment bureau may save many students. Scholarships and loan funds may be secured thru the generosity of graduates and other friends of the normal school. In some schools memorial funds have been establisht for these purposes.

Finally we should carry on a country-wide campaign to secure for teachers salaries which are sufficient to attract to the teaching profession increasing numbers of strong men and women and to retain them in it.

The need of maintaining the necessary supply of thoroly prepared teachers is urgent, and the responsibility rests chiefly upon us. The normal schools must see to it that in our struggle for a better world no less attention is given to the education of the children of the people than to training for the art of war or for the industries which are essential to its prosecution. It is a familiar axiom that in times of peace we should prepare for war. It is of far greater importance that, in no period of war, be it long or short, should a nation fail to prepare for the return of peace. There can be no larger contribution to the future prosperity of a country than the continued maintenance of an unimpaired system of public education.

II. THOMAS W. BUTCHER, PRESIDENT, KANSAS STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, EMPORIA, KANS.

It is impossible to state in a sufficiently forceful way the fact that there is certain to be a shortage of teachers in the United States next year. Indeed reports from all parts of the country indicate that a shortage has existed thruout the present school year. Men are leaving the teaching profession not only to go into the military service, but to go into commercial and agricultural lines as well. As these men leave the profession, women are taking their places. This movement in and of itself would have produced a shortage, but an additional draft is now being made upon the teaching force of the country by the government at Washington. Recently a superintendent of schools in one of the larger cities of Kansas told me that over 50 per cent of his women teachers are preparing for government positions. These women will receive at the outset not only more money annually than they are receiving as teachers, but more money per month. There is no indication that the public is willing to meet the advance in salaries which must be made to hold strong women, to say nothing of men, in the profession. Unless a very markt increase in salaries is made, and made within the next three months, the schools of the nation will be robbed of much of the best blood in their teaching force. The undesirable element will be left to train the youth of the nation.

The ravages of the battlefield are more bloody and in a sense more horrible than a calamity in the schools such as I have just described, but certainly not more dangerous for the future of the nation. Already pressure is coming from boards of education and the public generally for a lowering of standards as a means of keeping up the supply of teachers. It would be an easy thing indeed to lower standards. A motion once past by a state board of education, and for that state the deed is done. Into the wreck caused by such a motion would go more than a quarter of a century of struggle from which we have just emerged and which has made teaching and teachers respectable. Some day we are going to understand that men and nations are what they are chiefly, if not wholly, because of what they are taught. When that day dawns, teaching and teachers will get a new rating. The present fight for democracy is to be waged not only on the battlefields of Europe, but at home as well.

THE DISTINCTION BETWEEN ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL SUBJECTS

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In many, if not most, of our institutions for the preparation of teachers a sharp distinction is made between the academic and the professional courses. This distinction is inevitable in all cases where professional

preparation consists chiefly in providing a few courses in psychology, educational theory, and the history of education as a supplement to the typical subject-matter courses of the secondary or collegiate programs. The inadequacy of this type of so-called "professional" training is now pretty generally recognized, and yet this inadequate type of program is still characteristic of many normal schools, as well as of practically all the liberal-arts colleges that make an explicit effort to prepare teachers for elementary- or high-school service.

I am myself thoroly convinst that the sooner we abandon the unfortunate distinction between the academic and the professional the better it will be for the welfare and ultimate success of our cause. That a house divided against itself cannot stand is as true of professional education as it is of government. Until we can concentrate all the work of our normal schools upon the purpose for which the normal school exists our efforts are bound to be abortive, and we cannot expect those who have been skeptical of the serious value of our work to undergo a change of mind and of heart, and to join with us in our efforts to place the professional training of teachers upon a basis that is consistent with the fundamental significance of the public service that the graduates of our schools are called upon to render.

When I say, however, that the work of the normal schools and teachers' colleges should be professionalized thruout, I do not mean this in a narrow sense. I should not eliminate the distinction between the academic and the professional by eliminating entirely, as some normal schools have attempted to do, the subject-matter courses, and limiting the training of teachers to a thin pabulum of psychology, history of education, general method, special methods, and practice teaching. Nor should I assume, as other normal schools have assumed, that the so-called academic training can be adequately lookt after by preliminary courses taken in the high school or even in the junior college. The normal school of the future will lay much greater emphasis upon subject-matter courses than it has done in the past and relatively less emphasis upon detacht and formal courses in psychology and educational theory.

What I have in mind then is rather a fundamental reorganization of all our work with the professional end constantly in view. Everything that goes into the teacher-training curriculum should be admitted solely upon the basis of its relation to the equipment of the successful teacher. It must include scholarship of a very high order, but a unique quality of scholarship. Not only must the teacher know his subject, but, as we have said so often in defending the normal school from its critics, he must know how to adapt his subject to the capacities and needs of those whom he is to teach. I have in mind, for example, the organization of the work in Latin in one of the middle western normal schools which is doing good work in preparing high-school teachers. The students who are preparing to teach Latin take advanst courses in this subject in the normal school. While these courses

are of the same grade as courses that the students might have taken in a liberal-arts college, they are selected and taught with reference to the light that will throw upon the high-school teacher's problem. These courses furnish the students with a new, fresh, vigorous, and virile view of the subject-matter illuminated from every source of light that they can profit by thru their maturity and advanst training.

I know of another normal-school instructor in mathematics whose course in arithmetic, requiring as prerequisites strong courses in collegiate mathematics, is itself a course of real university grade, demanding I am sure, the same quality of mental effort that a course in calculus would demand. At the same time it is distinctly a professional course, laying very large emphasis upon the very materials that a teacher in the primary grades will need; but it is very far from a primary course.

I think that the point of view that one needs to have in the construction of these advanst courses in elementary subjects has sometimes been handicapt by our inadequate conception of the elementary materials. We look upon them as simple and rudimentary, and as given to little children they must be simple and rudimentary. The very fact indeed that they are basic and fundamental means that their roots strike deeper and ramify more widely than anything else that we teach. There is, however, in this case at least, a vast difference between what is common and what is commonplace. The fact that the earth is round is a fact of common knowledge, but it is very far from a commonplace fact; its establishment was very far from a commonplace achievement. The method of long division which we teach in our lower grades seems to be a simple and rudimentary device, and yet keen mathematicians struggled for generations with cumbrous cancellation methods before the present simple and relatively facile method was devised.

When I say then that the subject-matter courses should be professionalized I do not mean that they should be deprived of meat and substance, nor that they should be limited to the rudimentary content that the prospective teacher is to pass on to his future pupils. Nor do I mean that advanst courses bearing other names but which will throw light upon the elementary and secondary materials are to be abandoned. I simply mean that these latter courses are to be selected primarily because of this light, and I do mean emphatically that the question as to whether they will or will not be "recognized" by institutions that have other purposes ought not to enter at all into the discussion.

Subject-matter courses organized upon the principle that has been suggested will do much to break down the unfortunate dualism between the academic and the professional. In the first place, it is inconceivable that an instructor who is unfamiliar with the problem of teaching his subject on the lower levels will be competent to organize such courses. Instead of holding a proud aloofness from the elementary- and high-school classes, the

subject-matter instructor will be compelled by the very nature of his work to keep in the closest possible contact with the training school. He will have to know what his students are doing in the training school, what problems they are trying to solve, and how his course can help them in the solution of these problems. He will, I hope, be lookt upon as a member of the training department, with a seat in its cabinet and a voice and a vote in determining its policies.

In the second place the application of this principle of organization will do away very largely with the need of separate and often quite detacht courses in "special methods." Subject-matter and method will develop together instead of in separate and water-tight compartments.

In the third place, these professionalized subject-matter courses, together with the constant contact of instructors and students with the work of the training school, will make it possible to reorganize in a fundamental and thoro-going way what we now call the professional work. The traditional organization of this work, starting with abstract theory and culminating in concrete practice, is the most tragic example that I know of an educational institution refusing to take its own medicine, absolutely declining the challenge to practice what it preaches. It is an actual fact that professional schools of medicine and especially of law are today infinitely better exemplars of the very educational theory which we consider sound than are our own training institutions.

I have said that we should reorganize our professional work so that its general procedure will be from practice to theory, from cases to principles, from the concrete to the abstract, rather than the reverse. We shall have, I think, an introductory "orienting" course in very simple, very concrete theory—a brief course to serve as a propaedeutic to these substantial subject-matter courses which will be closely interwoven with laboratory work in the training school. Along with these we shall have brief but succinct and practical courses in the technique of teaching and management, in school hygiene, and in other subjects which can be made to bear directly upon the work that the student is doing. As the student's participation in the actual work of teaching comes to deal with the more difficult types of teaching and to involve larger and larger responsibilities for the progress of the pupils. His work in educational theory will increase in scope and intensity. There will be a place here for summarizing courses where he will consider as a whole the problems of some particular field, such as primary teaching, intermediate-grade teaching, upper-grade or junior high school teaching, or high-school teaching. These will be essentially curriculum courses, aiming to furnish a unified point of view regarding a particular field of teaching service. Finally, at the culmination of his normal-school residence, he will study general educational theory and the organization of school systems, and in three-year and four-year curricula perhaps he will have a substantial course in the history of education designed

to bring together and systematize a great many things that he has learned in his earlier courses.

The plan of organization that I have so roughly sketcht would do much, I am convinst, to insure an adequate equipment for the teacher. I may be permitted by way of summary to set forth very briefly what I consider to be the essential elements in a teacher's equipment, and how I believe that the suggested organization will furnish these elements. In the first place, the teacher must have scholarship of a high grade but of a unique quality. This the professionalized subject-matter courses should furnish. In the second place, a teacher must have a knowledge of the needs and capacities of the pupils whom he is to instruct. Here our primary dependence must be placed upon his actual contact with these pupils in the training school, with a definite responsibility from the earliest possible moment for a part of their care and culture. In the light of this intimate acquaintance he will be ready for whatever instruction in psychology may still further extend and rationalize his knowledge.

A third important item in the teacher's equipment may be included under the head of technical skills. This is the strictly habit side of the teacher's art, and its mastery involves primarily the study of good models, with careful supervision from the very moment that the student begins his actual teaching, helpt out by a study of the rules and precepts of teaching. For these models we must depend primarily upon the normal-school instructors themselves, and it is evident that their technique of teaching should illustrate in a positive way all the recognized proprieties of the art.

A fourth item in the teacher's equipment, for want of a better term, I shall refer to as teaching insight and resourcefulness. This finds expression in such capacities and abilities as the following:

1. Aptness in and fertility of illustration.

2. Clearness and lucidity in explanation and illustration.

3. Keen sensitiveness to evidences of misunderstanding and misinterpretation upon the part of pupils and students.

4. Dexterity and alertness in devising problems and framing questions that will focus the attention upon just the right points.

5. A sense of humor that will relieve tense or wearisome situations.

6. Ability to suspend judgment and yet avoid chronic neutrality.

7. The intellectual humility that means a bias toward a reasoned support of each point presented.

8. Ability to create an attitude in the class which is favorable to industry and application, and which takes good work and adequate results as matters of course.

9. Sensitiveness to evidences of inattention and lack of aggressive effort upon the part of pupils.

10. Ability to develop interests in pupils that will be more than merely transitory and will carry over to other subjects and other phases of life.

11. A sense of proportion that insures the emphasis of salient topics and distinguishes clearly between the fundamental and the accessory; partly dependent upon—

12. A clear perception of ends.

It is the possession of these abilities that makes the teacher an artist in his work, and it is with respect to the development of these abilities that our teacher-training work now is notably defective. The study of theory will not help much here. Practice under sympathetic supervision will be the factor upon which the greatest reliance must be placed, and this again must be helpt by the study of models. There is perhaps no better way to induct the student-teacher into a mastery of these elements than for the supervisor to say to him, when the student has failed at some point in his own practice: "Watch the way in which Mr. So and So handles this type of teaching."

A final item in the teacher's equipment is a real and dynamic professional attitude—an attitude, not only surcharged with enthusiasm for the service that he is to enter, but also intelligent as to its needs and problems, and competent to evaluate proposals for its improvement. It is here especially that the integrating and summarizing courses that will come toward the conclusion of the curriculum must find their principal justification. However, dependence must not be placed upon these alone. Each of the courses that the students takes, each of the instructors with whom he comes in contact, each element, indeed, in the life of the school, must contribute as much as it can be to contribute to this important end.

DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

OFFICERS

President—C. G. Nichols, assistant director, commercial education, State Department of Education.....Albany, N.Y.
Vice-President—James C. Reed, head of commercial department, State Normal School.....Whitewater, Wis.
Secretary—J. M. Watters, dean, School of Commerce, School of Technology....Atlanta, Ga.
Librarian—David H. O'Keefe.....New York, N.Y.

RESOLUTIONS

Whereas, The desire for commercial education is constantly growing; and

Whereas, The new type of commercial education must be adapted to meet not only the emergency demands of war time but the demands of the reconstruction period after the war; and

Whereas, There is a notable lack of coordination between educational and business interests in forming courses of study and in the organization of commercial education, therefore be it

Resolved:

1. That we commend the tentative report of the subcommittee on Commercial Education as being a long step forward toward the standardization of commercial courses of study.

2. That a committee of five be appointed to cooperate with the Federal Board for Vocational Education and the United States Bureau of Education for the purpose of encouraging immediate adoption of the course of study in all schools.

3. That we commend the recent action taken by the Credit Men's Association relative to commercial education to commercial teachers for careful study, and also the educational work of the American Institute of Accountants and National Association of Corporation Schools with a view of coordinating the commercial courses with these great agencies.

4. That the Business Section of the National Education Association express its thanks to the people of Pittsburgh for their many favors, to the officers of this section for their untiring efforts to make this session a success, but especially to the speakers who carefully prepared papers and to all others who took part in the discussions.

J. A. Bexell, *Chairman*
J. H. Saul
J. M. Watters

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION AFTER THE WAR

J. T. HOLDSWORTH, DEAN OF THE SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS, UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH, PITTSBURGH, PA.

America will undoubtedly emerge from the war strongest among all the nations in economic resources, in credit, and in productive capacity, but these advantages are but relative. In themselves they do not give assurance of successful competition in the post-war struggle for markets and trade by means of which all nations will seek to recoup their losses when once again their economic activities are turned to peaceful pursuits. He is shortsighted, nay blind, who cannot see that this nation, having been drawn into the vortex of the world-struggle will inevitably continue in the broad sea of world-affairs, political and commercial. We must learn to use the telescope as well as the microscope. For good or ill we have parted with our national isolation. We have joined the family of nations, and henceforth we must think and act internationally, not in terms of the country crossroads. It is thru trade and commerce that these new contacts and relations will most largely be maintained and strengthened. To play our part, and a leading part it must be, in this broadened drama of world-relationships requires a highly trained personnel. Here is the chief task which, with improved methods and enlarged vision, commercial education must assume.

With the new world-outlook, however, and the new commercial contacts and opportunities growing out of the war, increast interest in foreign trade on the part of an enlarging number of business concerns and of ambitious young men who foresee in the foreign field an attractive and lucrative career will doubtless develop. In this development commercial education must not merely keep apace; it must lead.

It remains true, of course, that commercial education after the war must still be predicated primarily upon the demands of our domestic trade. It must be more closely articulated with the actual needs and practices of modern business and commerce, which in turn must take a more lively and intelligent interest in commercial education. There must be closer coordination of, and cooperation between, business and school. Commercial organizations and business men must have a larger participation in the shaping of school and university courses of study and in the actual work of instruction along commercial lines. In turn the faculties of our commercial schools must get a larger familiarity with the processes of business and a larger comprehension of its underlying principles. Bureaus of business research, after the model of the Harvard Graduate School of Business, or better after that of the Mellon Institute of the University of Pittsburgh, in the field of industry must be multiplied and their facilities made available

to every important business community and commercial group. Such bureaus, in which must be coordinated the resources and business laboratories of chambers of commerce and other trade organizations and the skill of the trained business expert, will investigate such problems as markets, domestic and foreign, international banking and exchange, exporting and importing, employment management and labor problems, procurement of capital and capitalization, cost accounting and scientific business methods, business waste, economical location of industries and plants with reference to raw materials, markets and transportation facilities, and a score of like problems vital to efficient merchandising and trade. The business-research man should do some teaching, and the teacher should have constant contact with business problems and processes. As far as possible every student looking forward to a business career should be given actual business experience while in school, thus coordinating business theory and business practice, and making of himself a more efficient aid in the business world.

Tho much seems to have been accomplisht by way of providing post-high-school training for business, the fact is that to thousands of ambitious and aspiring young men and women who live in smaller cities, and even in some of our largest cities, the gates of progress thru education are closed because no adequate post-high-school courses in higher commercial training are available. In scores of our large cities this anomalous situation obtains, and usually without adequate excuse or justification. In such cities the local trade organizations, cooperating with the state university or nearby college, or, in the absence of these, acting independently, should be able and willing to establish and support an evening school of commerce, underwriting its finances at least for a few years until it should become self-supporting.

What can be done in the field of higher commercial education in every large city in this country may be illustrated by brief reference to the prospective educational work of the National Association of Credit Men thru its Institute of Credit. This association, one of the most powerful and influential business organizations in the country, has for some time recognized the need for standardizing and strengthening its educational work. After a year's study and investigation the Committee on Credit Education and Management, acting upon the recommendations of a committee of three experienst university business educators, brought in a report to the National Association of Credit Men at the annual convention held in Chicago, June 19, 1918, presenting the outline of a plan for the establishment of an educational department of the National Association to be called the National Institute of Credit. This report was approved by the convention. The plan of the Institute provides for a uniform course of studies in such subjects as principles of business, merchandising, accounting, economics, banking, business barometrics, business law, corporation finance and investments, business English and correspondence, bankruptcy law,

foreign trade, credits and collections, credit research, etc. The course is planned to cover three or four years and may be pursued in schools of commerce of universities and colleges of recognized standing. It is planned also to reach thru correspondence courses of a grade consistent with the standards of the Institute, those to whom such schools are not accessible. Upon the satisfactory completion of the prescribed courses of study, the student member of the Institute will be awarded a certificate from the National Institute of Credit. The position of Director of Credit Education has been created, the director being charged with the duty of developing the details of the Institute plan, both as to organization and as to the educational program. In the launching of this plan the National Association of Credit Men, which embraces in its membership some twenty-five thousand of the most alert and successful business men from every state in the Union and from Canada, has recognized the supreme importance of commercial education adapted specifically to the needs of those having to do with the nation's credit structure, upon the soundness and virility of which, of course, all business depends.

This new development is not only significant in its promise of enlarged service to the business community, but is a clear indication of the recognition by representative business men of new responsibilities and new opportunities in commercial education.

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION IN PREPARATION FOR FOREIGN SERVICE

GLEN LEVIN SWIGGETT, BUREAU OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D.C.

Do commercial education and training for business mean the same thing, that is, do they have the same object in view and propose by similar means to accomplish that common object? Until there is a larger degree of common thinking with respect to commercial education and training for business, there will be a corresponding lack of common action; and the lack of common action on the part of the schools means a loss to the nation's industrial and commercial efforts and output. We have confused too long vocational training for specific phases of organized business with the more general subjects that not only train for the profession of business but afford a high type of culture, namely culture that enables one to swim intelligently with the current of his time and to exercise a citizenship wherein obligations and rights are in full accord.

Shorthand, typewriting, bookkeeping, office practice, machine operating, and similar subjects are distinctly vocational. No one can become, however, an efficient stenographer or bookkeeping clerk without knowing how to write, spell, and calculate. In consequence, penmanship, spelling, English, and arithmetic are added to the course of instruction simply as

aids in training stenographers, typists, bookkeepers, etc. Retail and wholesale merchandising and business organization in general have developt to such a point that there are many kinds of service within business for which special training is very helpful and advantageous. In consequence, such subjects as advertising, salesmanship, banking practice, shipping, etc., may be taught solely with these special careers in view. If so, they are vocational in the same sense that stenography is. The very moment, however, that these subjects are considered as merely part of that complementary body of knowledge which trains for the profession of business, they lose the merit of mere instruction for a definite career and serve perhaps only for the purpose of illustration in unfolding the principles of comprehensive subjects like psychology, ethics, credit and banking, transportation, business organization and administration, etc.

Our nation demands that vocational business subjects be taught most efficiently and with full opportunity of election by the students. We must do, therefore, one of three things: (1) encourage as an emergency measure the introduction in the seventh and eighth grades and in all high schools, whether on the four- or six-year basis, of a course of study that will not only offer satisfactory articulation with the course in commerce of the higher institutions, but be so arranged as to permit the student to leave school before graduation with the least loss to himself or to industry and commerce; (2) adopt the policy and more general practice of continuation and part-time instruction in the schools; or (3) amend the Smith-Hughes Act so as to permit the administration of business-training courses in our secondary schools by the Federal Board for Vocational Education.

Training for foreign trade, in common with all training for foreign service, differs essentially from training for domestic trade. This is not the general belief. One of the world's greatest authorities in foreign trade, James A. Farrell, president of the United States Steel Corporation, has frequently stated that the problem of training for foreign trade is inseparable, as far as concerns common-school or secondary education, from that of training for domestic business. I hesitate to differ with Mr. Farrell, but I am constrained, particularly at this time when no moment is to be lost in the vigorous prosecution of a nation-wide program of educational preparation for foreign trade, to state my honest conviction that our schools and colleges must keep constantly in mind the vital difference in the technique of domestic and foreign trade if they would serve the end in view in the establishment of a commercial-education course for foreign trade. Such a course should not only include the usual business-training subjects, but all related academic subjects, like language, history, mathematics, and science, should be presented from an international point of view. A nation's success in the foreign distribution of its manufactured products demands that this viewpoint be taken by student and instructor in all foreign-relations courses on diplomacy and trade. It should color not only every

course considered essential to the manufacturer or executive, but all those that relate to packing, shipping, selling, transporting, and financing trade transactions.

COMMERCIAL-EDUCATION STATISTICS

DAVID H. O'KEEFE, NEW YORK, N.Y.

Commercial education, to the man in the street, means instruction in bookkeeping, shorthand, and typewriting; so these statistics concern those three subjects. To have attempted more would have made it impossible to present any report this year.

There are several ways in which such statistics may be collected. The questionnaire on the back of an addrest stampt postal card was deemed most convenient for the busy school men called upon to supply the data. The wording of our questionnaire follows closely the form used successfully by Julius Ensign Rockwell in the surveys he made of the commercial schools of this country, publisht in 1884 and 1893. His reports in the *Circulars of Information* issued by the United States Bureau of Education gave details concerning shorthand and typewriting only. Our questionnaire added questions concerning bookkeeping and courses of study.

The form finally decided upon askt for the distribution of the data desired on eighteen numbered lines, thus:

1. Location of school.....
2. Name of institution.....
3. Name of head commercial teacher.....
4. Name of head stenography teacher.....
5. Total number of commercial and stenography teachers.....
6. Date of introduction of commercial subjects.....
7. Date of introduction of shorthand and typewriting.....
8. Bookkeeping text used.....
9. System of shorthand taught.....
10. Number of typewriters used, Remington, Underwood, L. C. Smith, Oliver, Royal, etc.....
11. Typewriting text used.....
12. Time required for completion of commercial course.....
    Shorthand course.....typewriting course.....
13. In private schools charge for tuition.....
14. Number of students studying bookkeeping.....shorthand.....typewriting..
15. Are commercial subjects required or elective.....
16. Credit allowed for bookkeeping.....shorthand.....typewriting.....
17. Will you please send me a copy of your commercial course of study.....
18. Sign here.....

Each postal was inclosed with a covering letter on our department letterhead.

We shall not weary you by giving in detail the steps which were taken in the past four months to compile as complete a list of the commercial schools as was possible. It is sufficient to say that we succeeded in securing about 11,000 addresses which we believe form the most complete list of American commercial schools ever compiled. We mailed the questionnaires to approximately 4800 high schools, 2300 business schools, 700 institutions devoted to higher education, such as universities, colleges, and normal schools, 2600 Catholic schools, and 600 miscellaneous schools, such as Young Men's Christian Associations and charitable institutions, in the United States and Canada believed to be giving instruction in commercial subjects. An annual directory of those institutions offering as full detail as possible under the eighteen heads shown above is a real need not now filled by any existing publication.

Secretary Crabtree, in December last, wrote an encouraging letter suggesting that this work might serve to enlarge National Education Association membership among commercial teachers and supervisors. An annual directory such as was mentioned above would be great help to a secretary of this department in actively developing memberships in this great and as yet practically unworkt field of commercial teachers. If we had even one member in our department from every other commercial school, the department would number over 5000 and would be the greatest department in the National Education Association.

To aid in the tabulation of the replies, we organized in the New York City High School of Commerce a Statistical Club, made up of pickt boys from the first term. After the usual sifting process we found some with a real liking and ability for statistical work. Items 8 (Bookkeeping texts), 9 (Shorthand texts), 10 (Typewriters), and 11 (Typewriting texts) elicited answers comparatively easy to classify and tabulate. We have completed up to June 29 the tabulations of the answers as to texts and machines used in giving instruction in bookkeeping, shorthand, and typewriting.

As indicated above, the returns have been sorted into five groups and tabulated. The tabulation has been done directly from the cards on large, ruled control sheets. Each control sheet has space at the left for the names of the schools to which questionnaires were sent. The names of the schools are arranged geographically as to states and cities, but alphabetically by names of schools under the cities. To the right of the names of the schools, in columns for the items of the questionnaire, the answers were copied. There are 240 of these control sheets. The schools in this report are arranged in five groups: (1) high schools; (2) business schools; (3) Catholic schools; (4) institutions of higher education: universities, colleges, and normal schools; (5) miscellaneous, meaning all other schools.

1. *High schools.*—In 1884, Rockwell report, 10; in 1893, Rockwell report, 59; in 1918, in this report, 2049.

BOOKKEEPING

1884

No report

1893

No report

1918

Williams and Rogers	567
Moore and Miner	262
Twentieth Century	262
Rowe	227
Lyons and Carnahan	203
Goodyear-Marshall	44
Ellis	41
Cleary	17
Belding	12
Others	142
Total	1777

SHORTHAND

1884

Graham	2
saac Pitman	2
Munson	2
Longley	2
Ben Pitman	1
Lindsley	1
Total	10

1893

Ben Pitman	17
Munson	10
Isaac Pitman	5
Cross	4
Lindsley	4
Scott-Browne	2
Pernin	2
Allen	1
Total	45

1918

Gregg	1524
Ben Pitman	189
Isaac Pitman	60
Graham	44
Munson	22
Barnes	20
Chandler	19
Anderson	5
New Rapid	4
Paragon	4
Stenotypy	4
Others (two-thirds Pitmanic)	128
Total	2023

TYPEWRITERS

1884

None reported

1893

Machines	
Remington	63
Smith Premier	12
Caligraph	9
Hammond	6
Yost	3
Undistributed	22
Total	115

Schools	
Remington	24
Caligraph	8
Hammond	5
Yost	3
Smith Premier	2
Others	22
Total	64

1918

Machines	
Remington	13112
Underwood	12522
Others	8802
Total	34436

Schools	
Underwood	1519
Remington	1265
Others	1196
Total	3980

TYPEWRITING TEXTS

1884

No report

1893

No report

1918

Rational	1043
Fritz-Eldridge	439
Ross	55
C. E. Smith	32
Barnes	19
Remington	17
Underwood	12
Smith's	11
Metropolitan	10
Fuller	9
Van Sant	6
Others	112
Total	1765

2. *Business schools.*—In 1884, Rockwell report, 225; in 1893, Rockwell report, 1190; in 1918, in this report, 570.

BOOKKEEPING

1884

No report

1893

No report

1918

Twentieth Century	155
Rowe	125
Williams and Rogers	69
Ellis	37
Goodyear-Marshall	34
Lyons	22
Practical	21
Bliss	20
Draughon's	13
Own	11
Moore and Miner	6
Total	513

SHORTHAND

1884

Graham	60
Ben Pitman	57
Munson	31
Lindsley	30
Isaac Pitman	18
Cross	11
Longley	10
Scovil	7
Burnz	3
All others	26
Total	253

1893

Ben Pitman	448
Graham	153
Munson	115
Cross	108
Isaac Pitman	92
Lindsley	56
Pernin	37
Longley	26
Scott-Browne	26
Sloan-Duployan	22
McKee	16
Moran	14
Stenograph	10
Haven	10
Others	96
Total	1229

1918

Gregg	359
Ben Pitman	59
Graham	50
Stenotype	44
Isaac Pitman	36
Munson	13
Spencerian	13
National Shorthand Machine	8
Byrne	5
Success	5
Barnes	5
New Rapids	4
Others	59
Total	660

TYPEWRITERS

1884

Undistributed	61

1893

	Machines
Remington	1904
Caligraph	953
Hammond	435
Yost	175
Smith Premier	90
Undistributed	329
Total	3886

	Schools
Remington	713
Caligraph	458
Hammond	141
Yost	88
Smith Premier	39
Undistributed	204
Total	1643

1918

	Machines
Remington	6624
Underwood	6045
Others	5094
Total	17763

	Schools
Underwood	450
Remington	440
Others	409
Total	1299

TYPEWRITING TEXTS

1884

None reported

1893

None reported

1918

Rational	184
Ross	47
Fritz-Eldridge	46
Smith Budget	29
Barnes	18
Van Sant's	16
Deegan	14
Correlated	14
Fuller	10
Own	7
Scientific	6
Dougherty	6
Others	61
Total	458

3. *Catholic schools.*—In 1884, Rockwell report, 10; in 1893, Rockwell report, 106; in 1918, in this report, 355.

BOOKKEEPING

1884

No report

1893

No report

1918

Twentieth Century	66
Williams and Rogers	60
Rowe	23
Goodyear-Marshall	21
Moore and Miner	19
Lyons	13
Ellis	7
Bryant and Stratton	4
Metropolitan	4
Pierce	3
Others	19
Total	239

SHORTHAND

1884

Ben Pitman	4
Graham	3
Munson	1
Longley	1
Lindsley	1
Duployé	1
White	1
Total	12

1893

Ben Pitman	30
Pernin	10
Graham	7
Isaac Pitman	5
Munson	4
Lindsley	2
Stenograph	2
Miscellaneous	8
Total	68

1918

Gregg	108
Ben Pitman	44
Pernin	14
Isaac Pitman	13
Graham	7
Stenotype	7
Barnes	5
Munson	5
Periault's	5
Spencerian	3
Others	38
Total	249

TYPEWRITERS

1884

None reported

1893

	Machines
Hammond	121
Caligraph	80
Remington	66
Yost	34
Smith Premier	2
Undistributed	25
Total	328

	Schools
Remington	47
Caligraph	34
Hammond	17
Yost	4
Smith Premier	2
Others	25
Total	129

1918

	Machines
Remington	966
Underwood	881
Others	619
Total	2466

	Schools
Underwood	186
Remington	170
Others	142
Total	498

TYPEWRITING TEXTS

1884

No report

1893

No report

1918

Rational	65
Fritz-Eldridge	31
Pickert	20
Deegan	19
Barnes	10
Underwood	9
Remington	7
Fuller	6
Smith	6
Ross	5
C. E. Smith	5
Others	31
Total	214

4. *Higher educational institutions.*—In 1884, Rockwell report, 28; in 1893, Rockwell report, 82; in 1918, in this report, 269.

BOOKKEEPING

1884	1893	1918	
No report	No report	Twentieth Century	46
		Rowe	36
		Williams and Rogers	29
		Goodyear-Marshall	7
		Moore and Miner	6
		Others	44
		Total	168

SHORTHAND

1884		1893		1918	
Ben Pitman	8	Ben Pitman	20	Gregg	126
Isaac Pitman	5	Graham	13	Ben Pitman	25
Graham	5	Cross	13	Graham	9
Lindsley	4	Isaac Pitman	6	Isaac Pitman	8
Cross	2	Munson	5	Others	39
Others	3	Longley	4	Total	207
Total	27	Lindsley	4		
		Porter	4		
		Others	8		
		Total	77		

TYPEWRITERS

1884		1893		1918	
			Machines		Machines
Undistributed	5	Remington	75	Underwood	1188
		Caligraph	61	Remington	986
		Hammond	10	Others	764
		Yost	2	Total	2938
		Undistributed	13		
		Total	161		Schools
			Schools	Underwood	123
		Remington	54	Remington	118
		Caligraph	39	Others	110
		Hammond	10	Total	351
		Yost	2		
		Others	13		
		Total	118		

TYPEWRITING TEXTS

1884	1893	1918	
None reported	None reported	Rational	98
		Fritz-Eldridge	28
		C. E. Smith	6
		Fuller	4
		Ross	4
		Others	28
		Total	168

5. *Miscellaneous schools.*—In 1884 Rockwell report, 25; in 1893, Rockwell report, 82; in 1918, in this report, 112.

BOOKKEEPING

1884	1893	1918	
No report	No report	Williams and Rogers	21
		Rowe	20
		Moore and Miner	15
		Twentieth Century	10
		Goodyear-Marshall	4
		Lyons	3
		Metropolitan	2
		Others	1
		Total	76

SHORTHAND

1884		1893		1918	
Ben Pitman	7	Ben Pitman	21	Gregg	46
Graham	7	Isaac Pitman	14	Ben Pitman	18
Isaac Pitman	3	Graham	10	Graham	7
Burnz	3	Munson	9	Isaac Pitman	4
Others	5	Gabelsberger	6	Others	7
Total	25	Cross	5	Total	82
		Others	13		
		Total	78		

TYPEWRITERS

1884		1893		1918	
			Machines		Machines
Undistributed	5	Remington	64	Underwood	532
		Caligraph	23	Remington	484
		Hammond	9	Others	276
		Yost	1	Total	1292
		Undistributed	39		
		Total	136		Schools
			Schools	Underwood	70
		Remington	37	Remington	63
		Caligraph	19	Others	44
		Hammond	9	Total	177
		Yost	1		
		Others	38		
		Total	104		

TYPEWRITING TEXTS

1884	1893	1918	
None reported	None reported	Rational	38
		Fritz-Eldridge	12
		Smith	7
		Practical	3
		Others	14
		Total	74

NATIONAL SUMMARY OF ALL GROUPS

	Government Report 1884	Government Report 1893	National Education Association Report 1918
Total schools reporting	299	1519	3355
BOOKKEEPING*			
Williams and Rogers	No report	No report	746
Twentieth Century			539
Rowe			431
Moore and Miner			308
Lyons and Carnahan			241
Goodyear-Marshall			110
Others			398
Total			2773
SHORTHAND			
Gregg	0	0	2163
Ben Pitman	77	536	335
Isaac Pitman	28	122	121
Graham	17	183	117
Stenotype	0	0	51
Munson	34	143	40
Barnes	0	0	30
Chandler	0	0	19
Pernin	0	49	14
Others	107	518	331
Total	263	1551	3221
TYPEWRITING MACHINES			
Remington		2172	22172
Underwood	0	0	21168
Undistributed	67	2454	15555
Total	67	4626	58895
TYPEWRITING TEXTS			
Rational			1428
Fritz-Eldridge		None reported	556
Ross			111
Others			588
Total			2683

* Where a school reported that it was using two texts, systems, or machines, each was credited.

When starting the survey it was our intention to present in this report complete information pertaining to courses of study in public schools, which would be of value to superintendents and principals in introducing commercial work or in improving their present courses of study. In addition to this we hoped to be able to give more definite information than has hitherto been available regarding the credits allowed by universities and other institutions of higher learning for the study of commercial subjects in secondary schools.

The great amount of detail involved in merely classifying the answers to the questionnaires rendered it physically impossible to complete that part of the work in time for this meeting. We hope that the work will be continued until this part of our original program has been carried out, as we earnestly believe that the data thus obtained will be extremely valuable to this department. It seems to us that such research work and the compilation of definite data as suggested will help in formulating courses of study that will more nearly meet the present demands of business. It must be highly gratifying to the members of this department to note the wonderful growth in the teaching of our special subjects. In closing we want to say that the original cards and documents showing all answers to the questionnaire are on file and may be consulted by anyone interested.

DEPARTMENT OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND PRACTICAL ARTS

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—Frank H. Shepherd, professor of industrial education, Oregon State Agricultural College.....Corvallis, Ore.
First Vice-President—Arthur Wesley Dow, professor of fine arts, Teachers College, Columbia University.....New York, N.Y.
Second Vice-President—Adelaide Steele Baylor.....Indianapolis, Ind.
Secretary—Lester W. Bartlett, vocational adviser, city schools.....Pomona, Calif.

FIRST SESSION—Wednesday Forenoon, July 3, 1918

In the absence of both president and first vice-president, the second vice-president, Adelaide Steele Baylor, presided. Mrs. Mary Schenck Woolman acted as secretary *pro tem* in the absence of the secretary, Lester W. Bartlett. The program was opened with community and patriotic singing under the leadership of E. L. Peterson, secretary and manager, Pressed Steel Truck Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

The following program was presented:

"The Reeducation of Our Returning Disabled Soldiers after the War"—Frank Duffy, general secretary, United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America, Indianapolis, Ind.

"Vocational Reeducation of Disabled Soldiers—Canada's Experience"—I. B. Kidner, vocational secretary, Military Hospitals Commission, Ottawa, Canada.

Following the reading of the first paper, time was allowed for a discussion, in which a large number of those present participated. Interest centered about the trend of legislation to meet the needs for reeducation, the types of instruction to be given, the method of selection for these different groups, the relation of the school people to the problem, and the work of the Federal Board for Vocational Education.

Mr. Kidner's address was illustrated by slides that showed the wonderful strides that have been made in Canada in meeting the problem of reeducation of disabled soldiers.

SECOND SESSION—Wednesday Afternoon, July 3, 1918

At this session James M. Speer, Pittsburgh, Pa., presided. The following program was presented:

"Vocational Education in Wisconsin with Relation to Federal, State, and Local Boards, as to Organization, Administration, and Operation"—John Callahan, state director of vocational education, Madison, Wis.

"The American Homemaker and Reconstruction"—Adelaide S. Baylor, Indianapolis, Ind.

"A State Plan for Vocational Training"—Howard G. Burdge, supervising officer of vocational training, Military Training Commission, New York, N.Y.

"The Readjustment of the School from the Viewpoint of a Manufacturer"—James P. Munroe, vice-chairman, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D.C.

Time was allowed for the discussion of each paper.

THIRD SESSION—Thursday Afternoon, July 4, 1918

The second vice-president, Adelaide Steele Baylor, presided at this session. The papers presented were as follows:

"The Influence of War Conditions on Vocational Education for Girls"—Mary Schenck Woolman, specialist in vocational education, Hotel Hemenway, Boston, Mass.

"Preparing the Boy for Industry"—Louis L. Park, superintendent of welfare, American Locomotive Company, Schenectady, N.Y.

"Education Is Preparation for Life"—Arthur E. Holder, member, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D.C.

Dr. P. P. Claxton, scheduled to address the department on "Education to Meet the New Economic Demands," could not be present, and Superintendent William M. Davidson, Pittsburgh, supplied the vacancy by an extemporaneous address on the subject that was so fitting and inspiring as to call forth an enthusiastic vote of thanks from the department for this timely service.

FOURTH SESSION—Friday Afternoon, July 5, 1918

The meeting was called to order by Miss Baylor.

The following were named as members of the committee to nominate officers for the ensuing year:

Joseph M. Speer, district supervisor of industrial education, Pittsburgh, Pa., *chairman.*

Mary Schenck Woolman, specialist in vocational education, Boston, Mass.

C. O. Case, state superintendent of public instruction, Phoenix, Ariz.

As the speakers listed for the afternoon program were unable to attend the meeting because of urgent demands on their time elsewhere, the entire session was given over to a discussion of vocational education in the United States under the administration of the Federal Board for Vocational Education.

At the request of the chairman of the meeting Mr. James P. Munroe, vice-chairman of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D.C., answered queries and explained fully and clearly the purpose, plans, and conditions for conducting vocational education in the United States under the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Bill.

This informal round-table discussion made a most valuable session, as it enlightened the vocational and industrial teachers present on many points touching upon the federal act and its provisions for vocational education.

The following contributed to this discussion: Dean C. B. Connolly, Corrigan Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pa.; Cleo Murtland, director of vocational education for girls, Philadelphia, Pa.; Walter Goodnough, art director, Brooklyn, N.Y.; B. E. Rupert, director of manual training, Turtle Creek, Pa.; Mr. Bridge, director of vocational and industrial training, Galesburg, Ill.; Mrs. Mary Schenck Woolman, Boston, Mass.

At the close of the discussion the Committee on Nominations reported as follows:

President—Arthur F. Payne, associate superintendent of public schools, Johnstown, Pa.

First Vice-President—Adelaide Steele Baylor, Indianapolis, Ind.

Second Vice-President—Robert J. Leonard, University of California, Berkeley, Calif.

Secretary—Howard G. Burdge, supervising officer of vocational training, Military Training Commission, New York, N.Y.

The report of the committee was unanimously adopted, and the meeting adjourned.

Mrs. Mary Schenck Woolman
Secretary pro tem

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

THE REEDUCATION OF OUR RETURNING DISABLED SOLDIERS AFTER THE WAR

FRANK DUFFY, GENERAL SECRETARY, UNITED BROTHERHOOD OF CARPENTERS AND JOINERS OF AMERICA, INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

The entire American public, including the government, the employers, the school authorities, and the wage-earners, must do their part toward refitting the disabled and maimed soldiers for some gainful and useful occupation when they return from the battlefields of Europe. They must be given every advantage and every opportunity possible in order that they may obtain a training and an education which will fit them for some useful work.

It must be remembered that an injured worker is an additional hazard in industry, and this raises the question as to the obligation of compensation laws. Then again, these workers, in the hurried training they get, will not and cannot attain the same degree of efficiency as that acquired by other workers. This raises the wage question. The competent, capable, qualified, and efficient man will not stand for undercutting in wages on account of the employment of a less efficient man. Therefore the problem of placing back into the economic structure injured and disabled soldiers without safeguards for the protection of the efficient is a complicated one. This problem, with all these complications, was brought forcibly to the attention of organized labor when Mr. H. C. Nesbitt, commissioner of the Bureau of War Risk Insurance, propounded the following questions to the Executive Council of the American Federation of Labor in February of the present year:

1. How can we induce an employer to give employment to a discharged man suffering from a permanent disability?
2. What means can be adopted to protect such an employer from the increast liability consequent in a second disabling accident occurring in such employment?
3. How can such a provision be made uniform for all compensation states?
4. Can the same provision be made to apply in liability states?
5. What is likely to be the attitude of organized labor in regard to the employment and remuneration of substandard men?

After careful consideration of the whole subject-matter it was unanimously decided to cooperate in any and every effort to bring about the reeducation of our disabled soldiers, including injured workmen, for replacement in industry. This action on the part of the American Federation of Labor lays the foundation for all its affiliated organizations and component parts to do likewise.

Ways and means of caring for injured soldiers in England, Canada, and Australia should furnish an example to America. Provision for the

care of these men in Queensland includes, in addition to the care of their dependents while they are away, the setting aside of millions of acres of land for agricultural purposes, protected by certain well-defined exemptions, and the privilege of free instruction on the government training farm, with an allowance of $12.50 per week to those taking such instruction. Free technical education and training of the injured to fit themselves for some light, useful employment are also provided for.

Grouping the three great agencies, the government, the employers, and organized labor, I believe that it should be the part of the government to see that the war-injured are taken care of; that they should be educated and fitted for some useful employment free of all cost; that artificial limbs should be furnisht free of cost where necessary; that the men should be allowed a regular weekly salary for their maintenance and support during the process of reeducation and training; that they should be helpt to secure employment, and that liberal provisions, surpassing those of any other country, should be made for their future welfare.

The employer, on his part, should give the men employment at reasonable wages, should make their surroundings as pleasant and agreeable as possible, should not work them beyond their endurance, should provide rest, recreation, and educational facilities for them, and should not impose upon them nor take advantage of them.

Organized labor's part in the work should be to admit the men to its unions so as to protect and defend them in their rights; should permit them to work for wages agreed upon by the union, the employer, and the injured; should see that the shorter work day is observed and oppose increast hours and overtime; should give them preference in all branches of light work, and should help in every way possible in their reeducation and training.

Vast numbers of men and women are injured in industrial accidents annually in the United States. The horrors of war bring home to the American people the necessity of doing something toward reeducating and training those thus injured for some lighter, useful occupation. Industrial workers are as much a part of the war machine as are the soldiers in the trenches, and they too should be recognized and considered when steps are taken for the reeducation of the returning disabled soldiers. Statistics from the reports of the state and federal governments show that the annual losses in industry in the United States thru accidents, occupational diseases poverty, and baby loss total more than 12,000,000. Of these losses more than 4,000,000 are attributed to accidents in industry. This waste and loss should be overcome by reeducating and retaining injured workers as well as the injured soldiers.

THE AMERICAN HOMEMAKER AND RECONSTRUCTION

ADELAIDE STEELE BAYLOR, INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

Already the business of the American homemaker is emerging with such definite importance as to make it a cornerstone in the new era. The appeal to her to conserve for world-needs in the feeding, clothing, and operating expenses of her household, and the ready and intelligent manner in which she is responding to this appeal, both declare more unmistakably than all the theories that could be built up that the American homemaker has a distinct vocation that is an integral and essential part of national life.

Newer and better standards of living are the answers made to these appeals by the intelligent homemaker, as she perceives that after all the fundamental unit in national life is the family, and that conservation of family life is conservation of national life.

She finds that feeding and clothing the family and operating the affairs of the household in the interests of national life is conducting the household in the interests of family life, and that "what is called national economy, world-economy, or social economy is nothing more than collective economy with family economy as the basis." Everywhere she hears less of an economy that might sacrifice the health and happiness of the family and more of one that will build it up.

Now and for years to come human life must be made more and more precious in all phases of its existence, from the babe in the cradle to the man of many years, not only to counteract any tendency to disregard its value because of the prodigal waste of men, women, and children in the past few years, but to supply the losses.

Every institution and every agency should be made to contribute to this great work of the homemaker. All that science and art can furnish by way of information and guidance in the housing, feeding, clothing, and care of children and use of leisure in the home must be put into simple, concrete, usable form and placed within the reach of the American homemaker.

The schools, in their education of boys and girls, must develop a greater respect for family life, and in establishing higher and loftier ideals of the home care must be taken, particularly in the case of immigrant and dependent families, not to divorce children and parents. The business of the vocational school in improving the American homemaker is not simply that of supplying her with facts and practices to improve homemaking, but to place her and her children, educated in the public schools, on a more common footing in their ideas of home life.

Many avenues and many methods will present themselves to the American homemaker for pursuing her vocation, and her greatest task will be that of making an intelligent choice in the interests of family life.

If the American household assumes the important rôle in the reconstruction that is promist and needed, the American homemaker must "play the game fair." She must be intellectually honest and make her choice of activities, both within and without the household, with an eye single to conservation of the life of the family and the still larger life of the American nation.

A STATE PLAN FOR VOCATIONAL TRAINING

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Military authorities tell us that it requires from three to eight men to equip, place, and maintain one man on the firing line. That the work of from three to eight skilled workers behind the front-line trench has equivalent military value is today recognized by high military authority. In fact, it seems more difficult to find an industrial general to build ships than to find an admiral to command them.

H. E. Miles, chairman of the Industrial Training Section for the War Emergency Council of National Defense, says:

> This war is a war of machinists and mechanics. About one-third of the army at the front must consist of skilled men for repairs and maintenance. We must take over great numbers of skilled men from the nonessential trades into war production, and we must pursue the English and French method of fitting each man to the job he is to do. Every employer of three hundred men or more in France has been required to place a training department in his plant. The English Ministry of Munitions virtually makes the same requirement in its contracts for supplies.

President Wilson, in his recent telegram to the annual convention of the American Alliance of Labor, says: "The war can be lost in America as well as on the fields of France, and ill-considered or unjustified interruptions of the essential labor of the country may make it impossible to win it."

Assemblyman Welsh, Senator Slater, and Governor Whitman, the framers of the military-training law for the boys of New York state, clearly recognized that vocational training has equivalent military value, or, as a prominent military leader in New York state puts it, "Vocational training is *military* training, because the skilled mechanic is as much a part of the army as is the man who carries the gun."

A year previous to our entrance into the war the legislature of the state of New York enacted the so-called Welsh-Slater Law, providing for the establishment of a Military Training Commission to be composed of the major general commanding the state guard, a member to be appointed by the Board of Regents of the University of the state of New York, and a member to be appointed by the governor. The appointed members hold office for terms of four years. As at present constituted, the personnel of the commission is Brigadier-General Charles Sherrill, Deputy Commissioner of Education Thomas E. Finegan, and Dr. George J. Fisher, of the International Committee of the Y.M.C.A.

In order thoroly and comprehensively to prepare the boys and girls of the elementary and secondary schools for the duties and obligations of citizenship, it is the duty of the Military Training Commission to recommend to the Board of Regents the establishment, in the schools of the state, of habits, customs, and methods best adapted to develop correct physical posture and bearing, mental and physical alertness, self-control, disciplined initiative, sense of duty, and the spirit of cooperation under leadership. This feature of the law has been put into execution, and the schools of New York state now have a complete and comprehensive system of physical training reaching every pupil in the state.

The law also provides that all boys sixteen, seventeen, and eighteen years of age, except boys exempted by the commission, shall be given such military training as the commission may prescribe for periods aggregating not more than three hours each week of the school or college year, and for periods not exceeding those stated above for forty-one weeks in each year in the case of boys who are not such pupils.

It is the duty of the principal or other officer exercising supervision and control over any school or college to exclude such boys from attendance upon instruction unless they are enrolled for military drill or exempted by the Military Training Commission. Boys of these ages not attending school cannot be legally employed by any person, firm, or corporation within the state unless they are enrolled for military training or are exempted by the commission.

Such requirement as to military training, herein prescribed, may in the discretion of the commission be met in part by such vocational training or vocational experience as will, in the opinion of the commission, specifically prepare boys of the ages named for service useful to the state, in the maintenance of defense, in the promotion of public safety, in the conservation and development of the state's resources, or in the construction and maintenance of public improvements.

To carry out properly the provisions of the law the commission has establisht three bureaus, for physical training, military training, and vocational training, respectively, each under the direction of a supervising officer. It is the duty of the Bureau of Vocational Training to determine which of the 250,000 boys between sixteen and nineteen years of age in the state of New York are receiving such vocational training or experience as to meet the requirements of the law.

Enough preliminary work of this character has been done by the field inspectors during the past six months to enable us to form some very definite conclusions with regard to the method of procedure.

That all boys may be given an opportunity to comply with the law, it is proposed to ask the governor to set apart a day early in September on which day all boys sixteen, seventeen, and eighteen years of age shall be required to report for enrolment to the nearest public school in the territory in which

they reside. Thru the state education department instructions will be issued to all the teachers of the state for the enrolment of these boys.

As you well know, too many so-called vocational and industrial schools have been establisht in the past without an adequate survey of the industrial needs of the community. It is not the function of our Bureau to establish vocational, trade, or industrial schools or to outline courses for such institutions. We do, however, expect to be able to furnish to school authorities, labor unions, and employers reliable data concerning the industrial needs of any community in the state. We also hope to awaken the citizens of the state to a realization of the fact that with few exceptions boys engaged in mechanical and industrial pursuits, altho receiving an enormous wage, do not now have any opportunity for acquiring adequate trade skill and training.

Under the Military Training Law "we have a program for the defensive training of the soldier and, on the other hand, for the effective mobilization of the resources of the nation in training boys for vocations—which training of itself exalts and identifies as patriotic service all the effective activities of our everyday life."

THE INFLUENCE OF WAR CONDITIONS ON VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR GIRLS

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The rapidity with which women have entered war industries, even those of a mechanical character, since the war began has been one of the surprises of this tremendous conflict. At the last census in the United States 8,000,000 women were in paid occupations, but now 3,000,000 more have joined this vast army, of which it is said that 1,500,000 have entered war industries.

Munitions factories find them successful; the deadly T.N.T. has no fears for them, while their delicate touch is highly commended. Aëroplanes, gas masks, rubber boots, and tents are constructed by them. Uniforms, underwear, and shirts are made almost exclusively by them. Agricultural pursuits and business are calling them in large numbers. They are running trolley cars, motor trucks, and ambulances.

In the first year of the war in England the stoppage of commerce and industry, due to panic on account of the unexpected conditions, caused almost universal unemployment among women. The lack of work was so serious that organized efforts to relieve the suffering were begun. Workrooms and training centers were speedily opened to enable women to make some wage, or to prepare them for new war trades that were in need of workers.

The second year of the war found these unemployed women returning to work, frequently in mechanical trades in which they had seldom been found before the war. The demand was largely in munitions work and in various forms of army equipment.

On account of the need for greater skill in the munitions worker the English government opened classes to train women to handle the tools which they would need to use. The munitions plants also opened training classes of their own. The retail trade, clerical occupations, and agriculture also called for women workers, and training courses were begun in these occupations. The spirit of the English women was spoken of with enthusiasm, and Conan Doyle is quoted as starting the slogan, "Hats off to the women of England!"

It was realized that continuous unskilled and semi-skilled work is depressing to the worker, even if the spirit is good, and committees of citizens were appointed to consider the labor and hygiene problems involved, the physical influence of such heavy tasks and long hours on women, the kind of training needed, and how to organize it. Adequate courses for instruction for all the war occupations into which the women were going were opened, and now, after almost four years of war, English women are found in all the better-paid branches of industry which require skill and ability. They have risen to supervising and professional positions of great responsibility. The definite enlistment of women for all forms of war service except fighting has followed.

In the United States conditions are rapidly repeating those of England in the early days of the war. There is less scarcity of men here, consequently the extreme pressure on women to enter the mechanical trades is not yet felt. Nevertheless our women are at work in all the occupations in which their English sisters have been substituted for men. Their hands easily become skilful in unwonted trades, and their spirit of willing service has made them welcome in spite of their lack of training. They are in munition factories, they are making aëroplanes, gas masks, and parts of torpedoes; they are making uniforms, knapsacks, underwear, rubber boots, shoes, tents, and innumerable other army supplies. The railroads, business, and transportation are beginning to depend upon them.

As yet the women wage-earners in war industries have had little organized training. Some instruction for farm workers, over-sea telephone girls, and other occupations has been begun, but in general the women wage-earners are taught only the processes they are to carry on, and no concerted effort has been made to help them that compares with what the federal government is doing to train the men for radio work, for the shipyards, and for the construction of motor cars, gas engines, and aëroplanes. Committees in Washington and elsewhere are studying the conditions of their labor in hours, wages, and housing. The Women's Division of the Industrial Service Section of the Ordnance Department has a section on training

for women. The Bureau of Labor and also state and local surveys are at work on the various questions relating to training, to conditions of labor, to shopwork, or to the effect of the mechanical occupations on the physique.

The trade and vocational schools for girls are endeavoring to help to the best of their ability, but there are not enough of them. The Boston Trade School is training women to adjust and repair the electric-power machines and is offering older women instruction in uniform-making by power machines. The Manhattan Trade School, in New York City, is placing many of the girls trained on the electric machine in uniform, gas-mask, and knapsack factories. The Girls' Vocational High School in Minneapolis has completed government contracts of one thousand olive-drab shirts. Other schools are doing similar war service while training girls for wage-earning.

The effect of the war on the regular schools has been distinctly vocational. Food conservation, war cookery, canning, drying, meat substitutes, and the reducing of expenses are all considered in a practical way. Vast quantities of pajamas, convalescent robes, hospital supplies, refugee garments, and other Red Cross work are being turned out. Every available piece of material is being used. Renovation, repair, and the making of strong, simple garments is helping families to conserve.

The professional training of women for war occupations has been advancing with great rapidity. The colleges are offering new courses to train women for executive positions in connection with war needs. The Division of Women's War Work of the Committee of Public Information is sending out almost daily information on new openings for trained executive women. They are bacteriologists in cantonment hospitals, industrial secretaries in munitions factories, ship draftsmen, and teachers of physical occupational therapy. Summer courses are being offered to train them for employment management, the work centering in Cleveland, Ohio. The National Service School, of Chautauqua, is training them for motor mechanics, intensive reconstruction, telephone operating, telegraphy, agriculture, and other fields. Mount Holyoke is training health officers, and many of the colleges are giving training for nurses for the front.

Magnificent results are following the effort to train the professional woman, but the wage-earners must speedily he helpt, for their own sakes, to take them out of deadening pursuits and to help them to rise, and for the sake of the country's industries, as skilled workers are needed to take the place of the men. It is unpreparedness not to help these girls who, with devotion, are endeavoring to take the place of the boys over there.

PREPARING THE BOY FOR INDUSTRY

LOUIS L. PARK, SUPERINTENDENT OF WELFARE, AMERICAN LOCOMOTIVE COMPANY, SCHENECTADY, N.Y.

If the boy who is to enter industry is to be prepared for life, much will depend upon how he is prepared for industry, and the extent to which our schools prepare the boy for industry will in many cases mark the extent of their influence in shaping him for life in a democracy. If he is to emerge in later life a useful citizen, it will be by the way of industry, and the tone which his influence is to give to the affairs of his community will be colored to no small extent by his contact with industrial life.

How then may our schools help prepare the boy for industry? How may they help him to acquire a competency and live a normal life? How assist him to withstand the temptation to misuse the freedom and the enlarging opportunity of industrial employment? How plant firmly within him the ideals which will help him to develop into a useful citizen rather than into a self-centered, money-getting artisan? While we shall not attempt a full discussion of this question, we wish to comment upon certain of its phases.

So varied are the demands of industry, so many the degrees of opportunity offered, and so different the provisions made for training after employment, that no simple rule for vocational training of boys for industry can be suggested. The needs of each locality will naturally govern to some extent the vocational training advisable, and the preparations which the employer makes will modify those needed in the school for the training of the future worker. Still further, there is the problem of adjusting the individual to his proper task, of finding the work which will afford development and provide income to the satisfaction of the worker. These variables must be met by a program sufficiently flexible to insure justice to the greatest possible number.

As vocational guidance becomes more practical in the years of school activity, the more effective may become the vocational training possible to the boy, and the more certainly may the variety of experience be made to contribute to his final work.

But whatever may be the extent of trade or vocational training before the boy enters the shop or mill, there are certain mental traits which, if he has acquired them, will help toward successful progress in industry. The state of mind is, after all, one of the great things desired, the attitude of the boy toward his future work. His conception of the scope of his school training, his ability to adjust himself to his work, his reaction under discipline, his sense of the relation of quality and quantity, and his attitude toward compensation will have much to do with his progress toward efficiency. The extent to which the school may help in shaping his attitude toward these is problematical, but whatever it may be able to accomplish in this direction will be desirable.

The problem of discipline is one of both school and shop, tho differing of course in details and application. Unfortunately discipline in industry is not always handled wisely or effectively and is frequently the cause of changes in the place of a boy's employment. It is likely to be the case, however, that boys who in school have learned to respect authority will in industry be least disturbed by the exercise of authority by a department or gang leader.

"Production" is the big word in most industrial establishments. However promising a boy may be, the world and his employer will not long be satisfied with promises; he must produce the goods. The shop was called into being to produce needed commodities, and it must fulfil its mission efficiently or die. Whatever else the boy may be or do, or may not do or be, he must produce his expected share of the shop's grist. It is "output" or "put out." The proper balance between "quality" and "quantity" is the secret of success in industrial production. The great demand is for those who can coordinate carefulness and speed, and their number must continue to increase. Both traits can be developt in some degree by training. One naturally expects our schools to teach accuracy rather than speed, but if quick thinking can be stimulated in school work it will pave the way for the final development of the future skilled producer.

We believe that most schools have a direct moral influence which is of the greatest value in steadying the lives of growing youth. Where home and other agencies cooperate with the school in moral training the results are encouraging, but when the school operates alone the task is a trying one. Within the ranks of industry will be found some of the finest people the world has produced, men and women of high ideals and of excellent influence. But industry as a whole has not as definite a moral caliber as we might wish; its detailed influence may be for good or for evil; its habit-changing and habit-forming power will sometimes be for the worse as well as for the better. The substituting of this environment for that of the public schools may well give us concern as to the effect upon the morals of the young people entering industry, particularly when home influence is not strong. From eight to ten hours a day in the shop and mill will count strongly in helping or hindering the developing of manhood.

Just how the school may assist in the solving of this problem may not be clearly seen, but two things are evident: the longer the time allowed the student under school influence and the older the boy before he enters industry, the more strongly will he be establisht in his ways; and the more direct and powerful the influence for high ideals within the school, the better the preparation for the later temptations. It may also be that the overlapping of the two environments for a time, as in some cooperative schemes, may help to prevent a letting down of moral standards during the most trying days of readjustment and assist in maintaining the moral inertia needed to carry the boy thru.

Since the problem of preparation deals with an endless variety of student abilities and tendencies, it is evident that individual instruction in school will count effectively to whatever extent it is permissible, for that preparation alone can be effective which takes into account the needs of the individual student. Thoroness in a smaller number of subjects will outweigh a more pretentious program hurried thru. It is not so much the extent of his knowledge as it is his ability to apply what he has studied that measures the value of his training.

We believe that the present increase in cooperation between school and employer is a most helpful indication of future progress, for this mutual interest will accomplish needed improvement. As the school sees more clearly the demands of the future upon the boy, as the employer appreciates more fully his responsibilities in the worker's welfare, we may expect the boy to realize more fully that progress in industry will depend upon development and not upon good luck or friendly influence. This mutual understanding will make most effective the preparation of the boy for industry, and thru industry for life.

EDUCATION IS PREPARATION FOR LIFE

ARTHUR E. HOLDER, MEMBER, FEDERAL BOARD FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D.C.

Education is preparation for life. Primarily it is maintenance of life. It is necessary to a continuation of life. When education in the life of an individual, a group, or a nation stops, then decay commences, and dissolution and death are a natural result.

Education as a preparation for life should primarily aim to give every individual proper control over his physical and mental powers. Then he should be taught and inspired how to use these powers to the best advantage for himself and for society.

The problems which will face us in the future will test the ability of our citizens even if they are all equipt with the best education our schools can afford. Within our Republic every individual should possess the rudiments of an education upon which he can train himself to a higher education, if for any cause he has been denied other opportunities.

In our moments of impatience we are prone to criticize our schools altogether too harshly. If we must criticize, let us be sure of our ground; if we refuse to bear our responsibilities as a people and must level our satire at a group, then let us hit the bull's-eye and place the principal blame for the defects in our educational system upon that group in society which is primarily responsible for the creation of our free schools and our public-school system. That group is the labor group.

Labor created the institution and fostered and protected it in many struggles. Labor has created public sentiment in behalf of compulsory-education laws, free textbooks, and vocational education, but, notwith-

standing these activities, labor has neglected the personal touch and the neighborly acquaintance which should be maintained with the teachers, so that the teachers themselves can continue their education and develop the fund of new knowledge necessary for the preparation and maintenance of the life of their pupils.

Laborers, teachers, and employers should get together and work for the common good. Sometimes we blindly boast of our schools, public and private, of our richly endowed colleges and state universities. But we have not yet become properly enthused with the functions of either, neither have we yet reacht what the French call "the grand passion for education," and we never shall until we collectively come to the point where all the normal boys and girls under the age of eighteen in our land will be compulsorily kept in contact with the school and properly trained for the preparation for life that will be most suitable to their capacity and disposition.

On March 20 of this year our wonderfully gifted Chief Magistrate was credited with expressing, in his most convincing and scholarly style, a timely warning and inspiring exhortation.

In a letter to his New Jersey friends, he wrote:

> A time of grave crises has come in our lives. . . . . Every sign of these terrible days of war and revolutionary change, when economic and social forces are being releast upon the world whose effect no political seer dare venture to conjecture, bids us search our hearts thru and thru and make them ready for the birth of a new day—a day, we hope and believe, of greater opportunity and greater prosperity for the average mass of struggling men and women—of greater safety and opportunity for our children. . . . .
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> The men in the trenches who have been freed from economic serfdom to which some of them had been accustomed will, it is likely, return to their homes with a new view and a new impatience of all mere political phrases and will demand real thinking and sincere action.

I venture to say that search as we might thru the pages of ancient or contemporaneous history, we would never find any leader of men uttering such a clarion call to heed the signs of a new time, a new freedom, and a new world.

If we heed the lesson as we should, we shall commence to overhaul our whole system of education, commencing with the homes and the schools. We shall save and improve old ideals that are proved to be worth while; we shall rebuild and readjust our educational machinery; we shall remove unnecessary and un-American restraints; we shall learn the difference between economy and stinginess; we shall generalize before we specialize; we shall be affirmative, positive, aggressive, and generous rather than cautious, timid, docile, and negative.

Our homes, schools, shops, stores, factories, will become educational centers of greater value than ever before. Real, practical, valuable education, fitting each person for a greater enjoyment of life and a greater participation in public affairs, will be the rule rather than the exception.

Manual toil will be given equal credit with brain labor. The hard, laborious task is entitled to equal consideration with the pleasant berths of physical ease.

Every active element of society will participate with educators in the administration of all our schools, especially in the elementary, secondary, and high-school grades. Freer thought and freer expression will be the outcome. These functions are the very essence of democracy.

More school revenue must be forthcoming. All our educational work must be under public auspices and at public expense. When the public knows the advantages for better preparation and maintenance of life thru better and broader education, the public will open its pockets and generously provide the wherewithal. Our public schools constitute one of the greatest public investments. Several hundred millions are invested in buildings alone. These buildings should be used more generally for adult and community education and welfare.

Once this step is taken, the public will realize that our school teachers are being mistreated, and that their wages are wholly insufficient. School teachers deserve a raise in wages, a good substantial raise—more than a 100 per cent raise in many localities. The minimum wage base which has been popularized by trade-unionists and has been so effective in protecting the interests of our skilled and unskilled manual toilers should be intelligently applied to the method of paying teachers' wages or salaries.

Nothing less than $1200 per year will be adequate or just as a minimum rate for our teachers. It can never be secured by teachers, as units, or by individual effort; they must learn how to organize and protect their trade, occupational, or professional interests like other people. Then they must demand a voice in the management of the schools of their community, so that they can more generously contribute from their knowledge and experience for the benefit of the schools. In addition they should study the methods of other elements in society by association and federation. The right so to organize and federate must be held inviolate for school teachers as well as for doctors, lawyers, mechanics, and laborers. When these new activities are establisht success will follow, and long-deferred justice will be won for our teachers.

So far as it goes, our educational system is all right, but it does not go far enough or deep enough. It is still a long distance from simon-pure democracy and will be until we realize that education is not expected or intended to be a luxury in which a superior child, or an exceptional child, or a well-to-do child may bask. Our future bricklayers, carpenters, plumbers, and blacksmiths need as much care and as much preparation for life as do our future doctors, lawyers, preachers, and teachers.

This great bread-and-butter question, politely called the economic problem, is the impelling force that will drive us to a new brand of democracy which will be safe for us and safe for the world, a democracy which means not only universal liberty, but universal organization that will guarantee equal opportunities and equal justice to all.

VOCATIONAL REEDUCATION OF DISABLED SOLDIERS—CANADA'S EXPERIENCE

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Pensions and war medals are not sufficient to pay the nation's debt to those who have become disabled by wounds or disease in the fight for freedom against tyranny on the battlefields of Europe or on the seven seas.

Pensions alone, however generous, are not sufficient to pay the nation's debt, but must be supplemented by sympathetic and efficient aid to enable the shattered to help themselves—to become once more conscious and able to participate in the true joy of living which comes only from useful and satisfying work.

The state should not only protect its wounded by giving them the means whereby to earn their livelihood by work, but it should also strive so to manage its work that the mutilated may come out of the disaster improved morally, socially, and economically.

One of the most vital problems which the "free" nations now engaged in this war against despotism have to face is the demilitarization of their citizen armies. As soon as it is establisht that a man's usefulness as a fighting unit is over he should commence upon his vocational rehabilitation. The army habit of mind under which a man literally need "take no thought for the morrow" must be overcome, and an important part of the duty of all who have to do with the industrial rehabilitation of the disabled is to help and encourage them once more to think for themselves, to act on their own initiative—in short, to "demilitarize" them for their own good and that of the community.

In Canada, as soon as a man arrives from over seas and is transferred to one of the convalescent hospitals which are establisht from the Atlantic to the Pacific, he is seen by a vocational officer who is always a civilian, even tho, as in many instances, he may have seen active service and have been himself disabled. This officer, acting in cooperation with the medical officers, arranges that the man shall take up some form of work at once. The value of this is threefold: First of all it has a great therapeutic value. Work as a curative agent will often do quite as much for a man as the medical care he receives. Secondly, it has a splendid moral disciplinary value, inasmuch as it counteracts the bad effects of a prolonged period of idleness. Thirdly, in many cases, it may have a direct bearing upon and value for the man's return to civil life.

For the more seriously disabled, that is, the men who by reason of their disability incurred on service cannot return to their former occupations, the training begun in the hospitals is continued after a man is discharged, and he is given an opportunity of learning some new occupation suited to his disability. Only a small percentage of the disabled from war will

require vocational reeducation for a new occupation. Canadian experience shows that of the wounded and disabled returned to Canada only about 10 per cent will be unable to return to their former occupations. Of course only the more seriously disabled are returned to Canada, as many of the men who appear in the casualty lists are returned to duty after a period of treatment in the hospitals in France and England.

Canada is training her disabled men in about two hundred different occupations. This wide extent of courses has been possible thru the cooperation of manufacturers who have taken men into the industries themselves for the purpose of receiving training. Had the Invalided Soldiers' Commission been confined to training in educational institutions, it is evident that a very much narrower range of occupations would have been possible.

The training of the disabled has opened a real field of activity in vocational guidance. Every disabled man is treated as an individual case, and all the factors of his education, his industrial history, his mentality, his remaining physical powers, and his own desires for the future are taken into consideration.

Already, as the result of the vocational training provided for all disabled sailors and soldiers in Canada, many men are now in better positions than they occupied prior to their war experience. Vocational training and reeducation have solved the problem of the old soldier, and will in turn, it is hoped, solve the problem of the cripples of industry of this nation.

THE READJUSTMENT OF THE SCHOOL FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF A MANUFACTURER

JAMES P. MUNROE, VICE-CHAIRMAN, FEDERAL BOARD FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D.C.

An important war issue is that we have been wasters, and that this waste must cease. No one realizes this more vividly than the manufacturer. His motive power has been stopt by the coal situation; the receipt and distribution of his goods have been interrupted by the congestion of transportation; his markets have been bewilderingly changed; and his labor supply has been subjected to such strain as was never before known.

The manufacturer is therefore chastened, and it would seem a good time in which to impress upon him that he would have had fewer difficulties had he and those upon whom he is dependent been really educated.

The manufacturer is learning rapidly, but in his new study of industry he will not accept blindly what the schools have been giving him but will demand that the schools be made over to meet the new economic and social situation.

Among other things the aroused manufacturer will demand that education be made real and interesting; that it shall be made business-like; that

the pupil be made to understand his future responsibilities which are mainly (1) the duty of earning a living, (2) the duty of establishing himself as a real member of society by marrying and bringing up a family, and (3) the duty of performing his full share as a citizen.

He will demand too that the schools cooperate much more than they do with the parents, the industries, and civil life in general. This they can do by using, first, the factory, the farm, and the store as laboratories in which to give part of the school education; secondly, by making the school an adjunct to the factory, the store, and the farm; and thirdly, by dividing the work of teaching between the shop and the school under the so-called cooperative method. In other words, the manufacturer will soon be asking that the evening school, part-time continuation school, and the cooperative day school shall be made an effective part of public education.

This development is being helpt by the Smith-Hughes Law for the promotion of vocational education. Under the moral and financial sanction thus given, the schools and the industries can cooperate freely and effectively. In so doing they not only will be helping production, not only will be giving to the school such vigor due to purpose and interest as they have never before had, but will at the same time be building up a generation that will not tolerate such indifference, such waste, such slacking in the matter of active devotion to the duties of the citizens as we saw before the Great War.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION UNDER THE SMITH-HUGHES ACT

C. A. PROSSER, DIRECTOR FEDERAL BOARD FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D.C.

Under the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act as administered by the Federal Board, a part-time school is one maintained under public supervision or control, for the purpose of giving instructions to persons over fourteen years of age who have entered upon a trade or industrial pursuit, and who are releast during working hours to pursue instruction which shall fit them for more active and useful employment in the same or an allied trade or industry in which they are employed. The controlling purpose is to fit the students for better employment in a given trade or industrial pursuit in which they are already engaged, but in which are upon the lower levels, with small prospect of advancement without special training.

It is only upon this kind of a school that one-third of the federal fund for trade, home economics, and industrial education can be expended at all.

The controlling purpose of all part-time schools draws its administration from the law specifying "increased civic and vocational intelligence," and as one aim may be counted the increase of intelligence in a new vocation.

Primarily, the work is to make each pupil a better mechanic and obtain entrance into a better occupation than the one in which he is employed.

The Federal Board has taken a broad point of view concerning the meaning which could legitimately be given to the phrase "civic and vocational intelligence." Under this interpretation it will be possible for the states greatly to extend the number, variety, and enrolment of part-time classes.

Actual trade or industrial productive work must come first, and because of the limited course of study must contain only the points of greatest importance and value to the learner. The long, exhaustive, and detailed courses of the day schools cannot be transplanted to the part-time schools. The high lights, not as to difficulty but as to importance, for immediate entry into the trade taught must form the nucleus of every course. As the pupils are unfamiliar with the simple and fundamental manipulative process of the employment to be learned, the related subjects must come later and occupy a place of secondary importance.

It is possible to reach large numbers of boys and girls who, having left the elementary or high school, find themselves in most cases without correct guidance either as to how they shall get promotion, or how they shall make use of their time in the most advantageous manner, or how they may choose a more advantageous occupation. It is for these young persons that the law provides subjects which will "enlarge their civic or vocational intelligence."

As a rule these pupils are not naturally interested in learning from books. While many leave school for economic reasons, the majority leave school because formal school work does not appeal to them. They must be approacht thru actual trade processes and activities and thru their interest in advancement.

They are ambitious. The fact that they are dissatisfied with their present employment and seeking entrance to a better one affords a fine method of approach to their interest in instruction and evidences the fact that they are good raw material.

If the local community providing part-time education is to meet a real need it must carry the part-time education to the places where it can be given most advantageously to the persons who have entered upon employment.

It is possible under the Smith-Hughes Act to organize a part-time school or class which will fit them for useful employment in a really desirable trade or industrial pursuit. The controlling purpose differs but little from the controlling purpose of the day trade or industrial school or class, but the work must be given under different conditions, since it is fair to assume that most of the energy and time possest by any person who has entered upon employment must be given to that employment, while the all-day school assumes that the entire day can be given to preparation for a trade or industrial pursuit.

The occupations taught must be simple enough to be learned in say thirty to sixty weeks of part-time instruction, or the work must be capable of division into distinct units, each part of the whole trade in any one of which sufficient skill will insure steady employment. Thus a lathe hand, turret-machine operator, ignition and battery-repair man, etc., are divisions of the machinists and automobile mechanics trades in which men are employed before they are considered all-round high-grade mechanics.

That there is great need for part-time education is too patent for controversy. The drift had been away from the ordinary schools and into the industries long before the war opened attractive opportunities for work. Lack of interest in ordinary school work; desire to be getting at some occupation where tangible returns may be had, and the spur of family necessity are all crowding the industrial ranks with young people whose equipment is meager. The field is a large one, and the need for part-time instruction is great.

THE REHABILITATION OF DISABLED SOLDIERS AND SAILORS OR VICTIMS OF INDUSTRY

CHARLES H. WINSLOW, ASSISTANT DIRECTOR FOR RESEARCH, FEDERAL BOARD FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Since the United States government withdrew from industry two or three million men, it is the duty of the government to replace them in industry, with due regard for the capabilities of the individuals, and to neutralize such handicaps as have been suffered by these men in their patriotic service. This is the position taken by the Federal Board for Vocational Education.

The rehabilitation of disabled soldiers and sailors or victims of industry is by no means a philanthropic proposition; it is entirely governmental and national in its scope. Eliminating absolutely the sentimental and humanitarian aspect of the question, the facts all point irrevocably to this work as a part of the grim business of war, the first constructive step after so much destruction. It is a salvaging of precious material of which the foundations of this nation are a part—its incomparable manhood.

Vocational reeducation of men disabled for military service is therefore a means not only of conserving trade skill but of conserving it in a time of national emergency and of preventing in some degree the scarcity of skilled labor that is certain to develop as the war progresses. The nation which does not conserve the vocational skill of its trained workers will to that extent weaken its recuperative and competitive power and to that extent will consequently fail to achieve the immediate national rehabilitation of its industrial, commercial, and agricultural power.

The return to civil employment of large numbers of men under the abnormal conditions of the period of demobilization will occasion far-

reaching economic disturbances and maladjustment of labor supply to demand, unless that return is made under some comprehensive scheme of administration. Vocational reeducation will provide one means of so directing the return of men into civil employments as to occasion the least possible disturbance, and will go far to avoid impairment of establisht standards of living.

The industrial restoration of men has been found a very important feature of their physical restoration. The first aim of the doctors is to inspire in the mind of the man a belief in his own ability to live and be useful. Once the man himself is convinst that it is within his power to recover and become self-supporting, half the battle of the doctors is won.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION UNDER THE SMITH-HUGHES ACT

CHARLES A. GREATHOUSE, MEMBER OF THE FEDERAL BOARD FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

As a people, during the struggle of the last five years, our attention has been focust upon the resources of our forests, mines, and farms, that from them might come the greatest possible output to provide the necessities of life for ourselves, for our fighting Allies, and for the suffering peoples of Europe, and also the machines and materials of warfare to make possible a victorious conclusion of the war. In a singular way we now, as never before, recognize the value of our farms and their products.

The encouragement of agricultural education is of necessity the first concern of every enlightened nation. The present war has demonstrated to a striking degree how true this is. The food administrator of Great Britain in an appeal to America said: "Unless America can send us at least 75,000,000 bushels of wheat over and above what has already been exported and before the new crop comes on, I cannot insure our people that we will have food enough to win the war."

And so, true to the call of service, the energies of a vast number of people are centered upon food production and conservation. Local, state, and national agencies are efficiently directing and stimulating production. Public educational institutions are contributing largely to the success of the movement—the land-grant colleges by training leaders, and the public schools by training our young men for actual farming.

Altho drafted primarily for times of peace, the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act are strikingly adapted to times of war. Under the stimulating influences of this act agricultural schools are being establisht in every state in the Union. Dedicated to serve the needs of the nation, the Federal Board for Vocational Education is advancing the cause of agricultural education that the American people and their Allies may now be fed, and that ultimately agriculture in the United States may be pursued by young men properly trained for their work.

DEPARTMENT OF RURAL AND AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—C. H. Lane, federal agent for agricultural education, Federal Board for Vocational Education.....Washington, D. C.
Vice-President—W. F. Lusk, professor of rural education, Cornell University...Ithaca, N.Y.
Secretary—Charl O. Williams, superintendent, Shelby County Schools....Memphis, Tenn.

FIRST SESSION—Tuesday Afternoon, July 2, 1918

The following was the program for the meeting:

"The Relationship between Teacher-Training Departments under the Provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act, and State Supervisors of Agriculture for the State Boards for Vocational Education"—G. W. Works, professor of rural education, State College of Agriculture, Ithaca, N.Y.

Discussion—Leader, G. H. Whitcher, state supervisor of agriculture, Concord, N.H.

"Project Methods in Teacher-Training Courses"—A. W. Nolan, state supervisor of agriculture, State Board for Vocational Education, Springfield, Ill.

Discussion—Leader, W. S. Taylor, professor of agricultural education, State College, Pa.

Sectional Conferences and Periods of Professional Improvement Work for Teachers of High-School Agriculture"—R. W. Stimson, State Board of Education, Boston, Mass.

Discussion—Leader, L. H. Dennis, director of agricultural education, Harrisburg, Pa.; A. K. Getman, state supervisor of agriculture, Trenton, N.J.

"The Organization of the T. N. Vail State Agricultural School of Vermont"—M. B. Hillegas, state commissioner of education, Montpelier, Vt.

SECOND SESSION—Wednesday Evening, July 3, 1918

The following was the program for the meeting:

"Rural Secondary Education in the United States during and after the War"—H. W. Foght, specialist in rural-school practice, Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.

"Some Outstanding Illustrations of Progress in Organization of Rural High Schools"—Lee Driver, county superintendent of schools, Winchester, Ind.

THIRD SESSION—Thursday Afternoon, July 4, 1918

The following was the program for the meeting:

"Home-Project Work Too Small—Something Bigger Needed—a Substitute in Operation"—W. S. Welles, director and supervisor of vocational agricultural instruction, River Falls, Wis.

"The Effect of Rural Continuation Schools on Agricultural Efficiency"—R. W. Stimson, State Board of Education, Boston, Mass.

"The Educational Value of Practical Agriculture under the Provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act"—R. D. Maltby, supervisor of Agriculture, Athens, Ga.

"The Birth and Childhood of Vocational Education with a Forecast as to Its Development during Adolescence"—David Snedden, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

"State Supervisor of Vocational Agriculture under the Provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act"—J. D. Elliff, director of vocational education, Jefferson City, Mo.

"The New Education in Agriculture Is Based on Sound Pedagogy"—W. R. Hart, professor of agricultural education, Massachusetts Agricultural College, Amherst, Mass.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHER-TRAINING DEPARTMENTS UNDER THE PROVISIONS OF THE SMITH-HUGHES ACT AND STATE SUPERVISORS OF AGRICULTURE FOR THE STATE BOARDS FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

G. A. WORKS, PROFESSOR OF RURAL EDUCATION, CORNELL UNIVERSITY, ITHACA, N.Y.

The organization of the two phases represented by supervision of the vocational work in agriculture and the preparation of persons to teach such agriculture may be on one of two bases: (1) The responsibility for both phases of the work, supervision of vocational agriculture and training of teachers, may be under the direction of one person. Such an arrangement is possible under the provision of the Smith-Hughes Act by making a proper division of the supervisor's time between the two fields in which he functions. This adjustment is to be found in several states at the present time. (2) The supervisory function may be placed in the hands of one person and the responsibility for the preparation of teachers vested in another.

Of these two plans I believe that ultimately the second will show greater strength as measured by the results accomplisht in the teaching of vocational agriculture. This must be regarded as the final measure, because the Smith-Hughes Act does not exist to provide supervisors and teacher-training departments except in so far as these are a means of improving the instruction in agriculture under the act.

This statement should not be interpreted as meaning that the organization which places both teacher-training and supervisory functions in one head is without merit. There is a strong argument for it. It gives the department dealing with the preparation of teachers an excellent opportunity to follow its product into the schools and to see at first hand the extent to which the persons who have been prepared are making good when they have assumed their responsibilities as teachers. This is, of course, the final measure of the success of the teacher-training work. A weakness lies in the fact that those who have prepared the teacher are likely to overlook what may be fundamental weaknesses in his work, provided that he is proceeding in accordance with the instruction received at their hands. The supervisor who is independent of the teacher-training organization will approach the work of the teacher with an unprejudist attitude, and, other things being equal, he is more likely to see the faults of the teacher as they are exhibited in his work than he would be if he were responsible for that teacher's preparation.

A practical difficulty is created by combining the supervisory and teacher-training function in one person, because it is necessary for the supervisor to

distribute his work over the entire year. He cannot well have one semester for supervision and the other for teaching. This creates difficulties incident to having the problem of an instructor spend two or three days a week in the field and the remainder of the time in the classroom. Anyone who has tried this realizes that it is usually unsatisfactory. The supervisory work, because of the calls for assistance that come from the field, is the more insistent of the two, and as a result the teacher finds that the supervisor has robbed him of time which he should have for the organization and development of his instructional work. He is also without the time necessary to become intimately acquainted with his student body.

It is quite within the range of possibility that a third feature might develop that contains an element of weakness when the two offices are combined. Naturally the supervisor is in a position of considerable influence in determining the teachers selected by school authorities. He would fall short of being human if he did not favor his own students. Under normal conditions, with reference to supply of teachers, this may result in more or less inbreeding. I am of the opinion that at least 15 to 25 per cent of the teachers of vocational agriculture in any state should come from outside the state. Especially will this be true when the Smith-Hughes funds have made possible the development of strong departments for the preparation of teachers in practically all the states. This drawing of teachers from outside has its limitation in the fact that usually they cannot be obtained to advantage from regions that have a widely different agriculture from that found in the state.

When the two functions are placed on essentially coordinate bases and are vested in different individuals a broader viewpoint is brought to the problems, provided that the proper cooperation exists between those who are responsible for the training of teachers and those who are charged with the duty of supervising the instruction in the schools. It is not difficult to secure this cooperation when the men occupying the two positions are big enough and reasonable enough to bear such responsibility.

Those engaged in professional training of teachers recognize the fact that no matter how carefully their work is planned and executed they cannot turn out finisht teachers from training departments. To remedy this condition every state should be able by use of the Smith-Hughes funds to develop plans for the training of the teachers in service. Those who are in charge of the teacher-training work should take the initiative in developing plans for further training of the teachers after they are in service. Systematic instruction should be planned for and required of every teacher during at least his first year of teaching. This work should be developt by those in charge of the teacher training, with the advice of the supervisor. Since it must be largely individual it will be necessary for those who are conducting it and are responsible for it to visit the novice as occasion demands.

In order that this visitation may work out to the best advantage the following suggestions are made:

1. The state supervisor should send a letter at the beginning of the year to the principal of each school in which there is a teacher receiving such training, informing him of the fact that this teacher will be subject to visitation by a member of the training staff.

2. During such visitation the representative should confine his work to the improvement of the teacher's technique of instruction as represented by his work with pupils in the field, laboratory, classroom, or at the project. The visits that are made should be of such duration that it will be possible to accomplish this result. If there are changes of an administrative nature that would result in improving the quality of instruction, these should be brought to the attention of the state supervisor, who may take them up with the local authorities if he deems it wise to do so, but under no circumstances should the member of the training staff assume any responsibility for their correction.

3. Since the state supervisor will also endeavor to improve the instruction of his teachers he will be dealing with the teachers who are receiving training in service. For this reason it is desirable that the supervisor and those who are training teachers come to an agreement upon the fundamental principles that are to be observed in developing the work in vocational agriculture. When such an agreement is reacht there is little or no danger of disparity in the advice that comes from the two sources.

4. A definite period of time, for example, one year, should be set for this systematic instruction in service. The final decision as to whether or not it may be desirable to continue it over a longer period with certain teachers should be determined by the state supervisor.

The state supervisor should have a part in the formal instruction that is given to the prospective teacher. Arrangements should be made by which he will have several lecture periods for the purpose of getting before the class his views regarding the work which they are planning to enter. These visits should be made the occasion for giving the supervisor an opportunity to have a personal interview with each student. He should also go over the records of each with the teacher-training staff. These interviews and intimate considerations of each student will do much toward getting the teachers into the communities where they can work most effectively, because the supervisor will know the difficulties that are likely to be met in the various sections of the state much better than they are known to those in the training departments. Those who are preparing the teachers will be familiar with the abilities and limitations of their students and can judge of their capacity for meeting special problems that are presented in certain communities.

In New York state the department of rural education was able to cooperate with the state supervisor in a special work that was mutually helpful.

The supervisor prepared blanks on which the teachers were required to make monthly statements showing by means of a daily record certain facts regarding topics studied, methods used, and references employed. These reports were assigned by the department of rural education to advanst students for detailed study with reference to time allotment to the various topics, seasonal sequence, and the relation between recitation, laboratory, field, and project work. One of the annual conferences was devoted largely to a consideration of the studies that had been made of the work reported during the year.

The Smith-Hughes Act has placed before those interested in the development of vocational agriculture and those interested in the preparation of teachers for this subject a great opportunity. As has been definitely pointed out the greatest strength will be developt in each of the phases when they are working upon a coordinate basis with the fullest, freest, and frankest exchange of views between the two parties who in the end will be responsible for the failure or success of the work—the one who prepares the teacher and the one who supervises him after he has entered the profession. To accomplish this there must be *conference, conference, conference.*

PROJECT METHODS IN TEACHER TRAINING IN VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURE

ARETAS W. NOLAN, STATE SUPERVISOR OF AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION, URBANA, ILL.

A project is a reflective act carried on in its natural setting. Dr. J. A. Stephenson, of the University of Illinois, defines a project as a problematic act carried to completion in its natural setting. It is a large problem carried over into action. It may be composed of a group of problems which constitute subdivisions of the project. The project is the normal life-situation. In school we often take these problems out of their natural setting and study them one by one. The tendency is to teach the problems in isolated groups rather than as related to one life-situation.

The chief educational function of a project is to translate information into conduct. It arouses interest, since there are many reservoirs from which interest may flow, being tied up with life-situations. Dr. Snedden, in his *Problems of Secondary Education*, states that the keynote of the newer education in these fields is to be found in the development of facilities for obtaining practical experience under conditions as nearly approximating those of the actual vocation as can be obtained. The project method in agricultural instruction offers these facilities.

The great problem in the use of the project method as a basis for the curriculum is to select such projects and groups of projects as will give all essential facts, processes, and principles of the subject-matter which may be organized as units of knowledge.

Since all instruction in vocational agriculture under the Smith-Hughes Act must include projects in farm practice, institutions training teachers for this work should provide actual project work as a part of their curriculum in agricultural education. Land, animals, crops, etc., should be available, and the students should have the opportunity to purchase or rent materials for agricultural projects in connection with their college course. Their projects should be of sufficient scope to have economic as well as educational value. Such work has already been provided at the University of Illinois at Urbana.

PROJECT METHODS IN TEACHER-TRAINING COURSES

W. S. TAYLOR, PROFESSOR OF AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION, PENNSYLVANIA STATE COLLEGE, STATE COLLEGE, PA.

For purposes of our study I think we shall find it more satisfactory to discuss this subject as problem-project methods in teacher-training courses rather than as project methods in teacher-training courses. The term "project" does not mean the same thing to all the people who use it. Dr. David Snedden, in an article in *School and Society*, described the term project as "a unit of educative work in which the most prominent feature was some form of positive or concrete achievement."

Good pedagogy demands that the subject-matter of a course be divided into teaching units. The most effective teaching unit in teacher-training courses undoubtedly is the problem. This the lecture method formerly in common use in teacher-training classes failed to recognize. It is not strange to us today that the lecture method of instruction proved to be even more ineffective for teacher-training work than for other work. Instructors offering teacher-training work were as a rule well trained in agriculture but poorly trained in education. The men in charge of the teacher-training work in agriculture were not slow to realize that the instruction was failing to give the help that such courses were supposed to give. The students did not get the vision of the possibilities of secondary agriculture. The courses lackt that something that would stimulate, that would motivate, that would organize, and that would give direction.

At the same time that instructors in charge of teacher-training classes were groping around in search of better methods for their courses, supervisors and directors of secondary agriculture were searching diligently for some means of making agricultural instruction in secondary schools effective. Instruction in agriculture in secondary schools was lifeless and all but meaningless until project teaching put life, interest, and meaning into the work offered. The child found in his project definite problems to be solved and a goal toward which to work.

In the same way, if the student in a teacher-training course is to get the greatest possible good from his work he must have some definite problem

before him. We all work hardest when we have a difficult problem to solve. So it is with the student. The result which he is seeking "becomes a conscious aim, a guiding and inspiring purpose." He thinks with less waste when he has something central as a motive and guide. Problem-project teaching gives a realness and a concreteness to instruction that can be obtained in no other way.

Endeavor is more earnest and more persistent where interest is keen in the end desired. Interest is keener when there is a distinct need felt for the end sought. The problem, therefore, the need of whose solution is keenly felt, stimulates thought to discover the best methods of dealing with the situation. Furthermore the project that enlists the energy and resources of the student most is not your project but the project that he himself is working out.

So we have come to look upon our teacher-training courses as projects—big projects made up of a series of problems. This series of related problems that make up the content of the courses, when solved and properly correlated and organized, comprises the working out of the project. The planning of a library for vocational agriculture in secondary schools is an example of one of the problems of the course. Instead of having the instructor give the class a stereotypt or perhaps a mimeographt lecture on the high-school agricultural library, the student is given a problem to work out. Briefly, he is askt to select his library of books and give reasons for each book selected. He is askt to select a library of bulletins—bulletins that will be useful in his teaching—and he is askt to catalog them in the way that will make them most usable to his students. He has something definite to work out—something that will be directly helpful in his work when he becomes a teacher of secondary agriculture. When the students, under the direction of the teacher, have decided upon the list of books that will be of most help and know why they will be most helpful, when they have learned how to select bulletins of most worth and catalog them so as to make them most accessible, they will feel more than repaid for their work and will attack the next problem with enthusiasm and zeal. A problem of this kind stimulates interest and effort because of its practical bearing. Its solution insures better library materials, better library methods, and better library facilities in secondary vocational agricultural libraries, all of which are greatly needed.

Let us suppose again that the problem of the class in teacher training is properly to equip the agricultural laboratory. The problem will be first to determine what will be incorporated in the course of study and then to buy equipment to fit the course as outlined. Too frequently the teacher plans instruction to fit his equipment rather than equipment to make clear his instruction. Equipping the agricultural laboratory becomes relatively a simple matter when attackt from this viewpoint, and again the student has something he can use in developing his work in secondary schools.

In the same way we might enumerate all the problems of the course and show how each gives definite help. But the problem-project method does more than give specific help. Every project is a life-problem, and we get direction and power to handle other problems of life from having successfully workt out the preceding one. The project may be small or it may be large; the lesson from each should lead toward the same end; it should develop correct procedure in thinking and in working out similar problems; it should aid in developing clear notions of accuracy and scientific viewpoint; it should develop initiative; it should give self-direction; it should develop self-reliance; and lastly project teaching should motivate.

It is not difficult to see that project teaching in teacher-training courses must have careful planning. The student must know where he is going, or there will be a tremendous amount of lost motion. Every problem of the course must be specific; it must be vitally related to the work that the student expects to do as a teacher, and its working out must lead to a definite goal. Problem-project teaching accomplishes its purpose when the results of the effort required for solving the problem "are of such positive and abiding interest as to arouse the person to a clearer recognition of purpose and to a more thoughtful consideration of means of accomplishment."

The result that is most desired in all teaching, according to Mr. Dewey, is "that the mind should be sensitive to problems and skilled in methods of attack and solution." The acid test of good teaching, according to Kirkpatrick, is "to leave the student with a desire to know more." I want to combine these two and say that the acid test of good teaching is (1) to leave the student with a desire to know more and (2) to enable him to sense problems quickly and attack and solve them in the most economical way. This the problem-project method of teaching attempts to do in teacher-training courses.

SECTIONAL CONFERENCES AND PERIODS OF PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT WORK FOR TEACHERS OF HIGH-SCHOOL AGRICULTURE

RUFUS W. STIMSON, STATE SUPERVISOR OF VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION, BOSTON, MASS.

The aim of high-school agricultural instruction need not be vocational. It may have strong avocational values. It may also have important prevocational or vocational-guidance values. If it guides pupils into agricultural colleges it will at the same time be assisting them to accumulate experience which cannot but add to the value of their agricultural-college training.

Those in charge of our program today are understood to have had high-school teachers of agriculture suited to vocational courses primarily in mind in assigning the subject of this address.

The vocational agricultural teacher must be first of all practical. He must know the farm routine of the region in which he teaches. He must be able to do. He must have understanding and sympathy. He must have common sense—the most uncommon of all senses. He must be not only a man among men but a farmer among farmers. Otherwise he cannot hope to command the respect and enlist the cooperation for good home-project work of the fathers of the pupils in his classes; and in the absence of such respect and cooperation his efforts will be futile.

The vocational agricultural teacher must also be able to give instruction in the bearings of the sciences upon the productive farming operations he teaches. His boys must be taught not only to do but also to comprehend. He must promote both action and reflection, both skill and judgment. He must develop not merely farm hands but also farm managers.

Finally the vocational agricultural teacher must be a master of good teaching methods. He must understand both the subject method and the project method and know when and where and how to displace the former by the latter.

It is small wonder perhaps that when the speaker first proposed the home-project, one-teacher, high-school-department plan of vocational agricultural education he was met by a professor of agricultural education with the declaration, "The plan you are proposing is impossible! This is the day of specialization. Even a college professor can hardly hope to master completely the specialty of his department, and you are proposing that the high-school teacher shall be a specialist in all agricultural specialties."

Of course this critic was laboring under a misapprehension. Students of farm management are arguing that the most profitable farm, the country over, is the general farm. What the speaker proposed and still advocates is that the agricultural instructor, in a region where general farming ought to be the rule, should know and be able to do the things that agricultural educators are everywhere claiming that the general farmer ought himself to know and be able to do. If this program is not impossible for the farmer himself, it should not be impossible for the one-teacher department instructor.

Assurance of success was made doubly sure at the outset in Massachusetts by a definite reservation of time every year, in the case of every instructor, for professional improvement.

Every instructor should keep abreast of the best farm practice. If his duties with his boys are so engrossing as to absorb most of his time, during part of the year he may be taken away from his boys and be put to work with farmers. His work with farmers may be work at one or another branch of farming in which he is not sufficiently proficient.

Owing to the stress put upon practical farm experience and technical agricultural training, in approval of candidates, men of considerable matu-

rity are generally appointed to high-school agricultural instructorships. Their point of view is essentially the point of view of the adult. They are strongest in their hold upon the older boys in their classes. Such men may need, not so much to be taken away from boys to be put with men, as to be taken away from men to be put with boys. Professional improvement credit in Massachusetts is therefore given for all supervision of agricultural club work of boys twelve and thirteen years of age. Incidentally of course such work with children provides an excellent finding or guiding system.

Equally important with keeping abreast of farming is it that the instructor shall keep abreast of the development of agricultural science in its various phases. Part of the year accordingly an instructor may be taken away from both boys and farmers to be put with agricultural-college research and extension workers. He thus finds his way to sources of sound information and returns to his teaching with his stores of knowledge enricht and with his spirit invigorated.

From the foregoing it will be evident that professional improvement may require periods apart from teaching. Winter periods have generally been selected. Absence of instructors in December, January, or February does not interrupt supervision of projects during the growing season when such supervision ought in all cases to be continuous. It tends to prevent an overdose of book agriculture for the pupils. Boys who have been hard prest by heavy project study and project work during the spring, summer, and fall months sometimes benefit from the half-time vacation from school work which may be allowed during the agricultural instructor's absence. Winter absence of the agricultural instructor makes it possible for other teachers to claim more time. Boys who have fallen behind thus make up what they have lost. A very desirable device for stopping the gap occasioned by the winter absence of an agricultural instructor has been the employment of a foreman carpenter to give agricultural pupils farm shop-work instruction.

Periods of professional improvement may, however, be concurrent with teaching. Where the number of boys to be supervised during the summer is not so great as to demand all of the time of the instructor, one-quarter—in some cases one-half—of his time between the close of formal class instruction in June and the opening of such instruction in September may be devoted to professional improvement.

In Massachusetts the first steps in the agricultural teacher-training plan, under the Smith-Hughes Act, are being taken. A sort of project method of teaching teachers how to teach agriculture, after they have been appointed to their jobs, has been adopted. The teacher trainer goes from school to school and from man to man. He helps each instructor on the spot. The project plan of teacher training, however, provides for seminar courses at the agricultural college, during part of the winter and part of the summer, to be conducted by the agricultural teacher trainer.

Professional improvement has from the beginning been a fundamental feature of the Massachusetts plan of vocational agricultural education. A maximum of two months a year has been and still may be required. During this time the instructor is on salary. His program of improvement may be proposed by himself, by the local school authorities, by the agricultural teacher trainer, or by the state supervisor. It is subject to the state supervisor's approval.

The minimum requirement of professional improvement is two weeks a year. Every instructor in the agricultural education service must attend a winter conference and a summer conference of about one week each. Attendance at these conferences is credited to each man as professional improvement work.

The speaker feels that the best headway is made at sectional conferences of teachers, as in the teaching of agriculture itself by immediate contact with jobs. Men on the program, scheduled to discuss one or another phase of their equipment, method, or results, do their talking at home and not at a distance. Those present see that what these instructors state they are doing, they actually are doing. Most men see better than they visualize.

Of fundamental importance also, the speaker feels, are joint conferences of vocational agricultural directors and instructors, agricultural-college, research, and extension men, and agricultural county agents. Just as the instructor returns to his post from a summer conference with a better background of knowledge of agricultural conditions in Massachusetts and of teaching methods, so he returns to his post from a joint conference with a better sense of the agricultural education and extension movement of the country and the state. The conferences contribute unity of spirit and aim. They are of fundamental importance. In other phases of professional improvement the instructor may feel that he is working more or less as a unit and principally for his own good or the good of his particular field of service. At the conferences he feels himself swung into the great forward movement, feels himself falling into step with the great host of workers for agricultural betterment. He returns to his post stronger in his own strength, but stronger by far in the united strength of the men he has met, and he now feels himself shoulder to shoulder with them in an unconquerable advance.

DISCUSSION

A. K. Getman, state supervisor of agricultural education, Trenton, N.J.—It is a matter of common experience that there is great need for the professional improvement of agricultural teachers in service. In spite of the development of special courses for the training of teachers of vocational agriculture in our state agricultural colleges, young men are constantly entering the work with a sense of their inability to do the job in the most effective way. Aside from the follow-up of the inexperienst teachers on the part of the

teacher-training departments there are two effective ways whereby the work of the teacher may be greatly improved: (1) by sectional conferences held at convenient points in the state and at varying intervals during the year, and (2) by the setting aside of a definite time during which the teachers may engage in professional-improvement work.

Speaking from the point of view of the state supervisor and teacher trainer combined, the holding of sectional conferences and the providing of opportunities for professional improvement are fundamental essentials of good administration of agricultural education. In this discussion these two phases of the work will be considered as being separate from the itinerant teacher-training activities.

There are four more or less well-defined functions of sectional conferences of teachers of agriculture: (1) These conferences serve as a very effective means of placing before the teachers new plans for the work of any given year. During the past year, for example, conferences have been called for the purpose of presenting the plan for the reorganization of the work under the provision of the Smith-Hughes Act. In many cases this reorganization was slight, whereas in others it meant a radical change in the former plans. Again the stressing of some special phase of work that may be deserving of attention thruout several parts of the state may be brought about thru conferences. Aside from the presentation of new plans or departures from the regular routine work it is often possible for the state supervisor to present possible plans and to receive the very helpful reactions from the men before these plans are finally put into operation. (2) Unquestionably one of the best methods of teaching is to give first-hand experience in the problems under consideration. Sectional conferences present a very effective means of raising the standards of certain kinds of work by means of observation. Arrangements may be made for the assembling of several teachers whose problems are somewhat similar, and visits may be made to the scene of some specially good pieces of work in the community. (3) Sectional conferences offer an opportunity for the presentation, by the agricultural specialists from the college, of any special phase of agricultural practice. A campaign against oat smut, or a concerted attack on any troublesome disease or insect pest, or the study of the farming of a community by means of survey methods, are illustrations of this phase of improvement. The specialists are thus able to promote the particular practice which they are anxious to have the farmers put into operation, and the teachers are kept in close touch with the best and latest methods. (4) In the administration of agricultural teaching in any state plan the question of the courses of study is constantly coming up. Experience seems to indicate that the courses of study should be organized primarily from the point of view of local agriculture rather than from that of a state-wide plan. It frequently happens that a group of men is engaged in teaching agriculture in a community where the types of farming are similar. It is possible by means of conferences to prepare tentative courses of study based on the actual teaching experience of the men who are facing like problems.

With the development of the practice of employing teachers of agriculture for twelve months there comes the definite need for the setting aside of periods for professional improvement work. Experience has shown that this improvement divides itself naturally into two rather distinct groups: (1) Teachers feel the need of keeping in contact with the new developments in the field of technical agriculture and of getting into touch with new developments in special phases of business problems. (2) Teachers are coming more and more to realize that they need assistance in the organization of subject-matter and in their teaching methods.

After a few years of teaching experience in a given community a teacher frequently feels that he needs further instruction in some special branch of farming or in the problems of organization of the various community activities. During the time set aside for his professional improvement such a teacher might attend a college of agriculture where he would receive the desired instruction, or he might get into close contact with the practical phases of the work in which he wishes help. A teacher, for instance, in a community where

there is need of organization for marketing purposes might well devote several weeks to the study of market conditions in the prevailing markets for that community. He might also with profit receive instruction from professors of rural economics and rural organizations. Equipt with this training he would be in much better shape to conduct a strong department of agriculture and to assist the farmers of the community in their market problems.

The establishment of departments of agricultural education in the state agricultural colleges has made possible the development of courses dealing with teaching methods. Many colleges are now offering special short-unit courses for teachers of agriculture. These courses are usually offered after the Christmas holidays, at which time it has been customary to permit the agricultural teachers to gain their professional improvement.

It is usually necessary to make clear to the school officers the importance of the professional improvement of agricultural teachers, and it is well to have this understanding at the time the work of the department is started. Boards of education are usually willing to provide periods for improvement work if they understand that such work is carried on in an organized way and is of direct benefit to the school.

HOME-PROJECT WORK TOO SMALL—SOMETHING BIGGER NEEDED—A SUBSTITUTE IN OPERATION

W. S. WELLES, STATE SUPERVISOR OF VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURAL INSTRUCTION, RIVER FALLS, WIS.

This paper is the condenst thinking and work of eleven years on the problem of public-school agricultural instruction, in and thru an institution which has for its sole purpose the preparation of teachers for the state of Wisconsin. The convictions which have arisen in this long series of tests and efforts to work out the agricultural instruction problem in these various fields are wholly personal and apply to Wisconsin conditions.

Agricultural education is still in its unformed youth. As long as this work was in its infancy and childhood, the mode of learning in vogue was applied to agriculture as it was to arithmetic and grammar, and we had agriculture from the book. This was early carried over to the laboratory method, and demonstration and observation materials were in demand. School gardens had their day as an attachment to all the schools, from country school to city high school. These gardens have a place yet in the work in the proper location, but not where agriculture is a serious business.

There were encouraging signs all about that we were thinking and working in the right direction. The next step was evidence of advance. Thru the school plat we hoped to secure real agricultural atmosphere and experience. It did not take long to demonstrate that this had some glaring faults that became public gossip and came back upon the school heads in an uncomfortable way. The school plat still has some points of merit. There are also some strong points against it.

But we must have concrete work, we must have the pupils participate in the actual work in agriculture. If it is not practicable to do this at school, then let us have it done at home. Enter "home project"! The

great advantage to be gained from home-project work is the fact that the work is done out of the schoolroom and is centered upon the actual process in agriculture in the field and the barn at home, which means, not only that the teacher and the pupil are interested in the work in hand, but that the parents are drawn in, in a way which makes everybody a participant in the things which are to be done. I have had a great deal of conversation with quite a wide variety of people who are interested in agriculture from the teaching point of view on the question of the advantages and disadvantages of home-project work, its strength and its weakness. I find that the people with whom I have talkt may be roughly divided into two groups: the first group may be said to be mechanically minded, and its members fall easily into beaten paths, carrying out with success definite instructions. The other group is composed of those people who look upon agricultural instruction as a developing field of work in which there are no main traveled roads or scarcely blazed trails to lead them in that work, and consequently they are thrown upon their own initiative and resources to work out the very best things possible in this field.

One question has been put to all of these people: "Are you satisfied that home-project work is the best type of practical work for school people to engage in, in agriculture?" One group, in answer to that question, said "yes," the other "no."

In order to see whether this was a state of mind true only of the teaching class, I began to ask questions of people who were directly engaged in agriculture—people who had boys in school or beyond school—and was very much gratified to find that the farmers themselves had something of the same mental stretch toward something more valuable in agriculture for their boys and girls than had yet been achieved. The following is a conversation with a good type of farmer, named Miller, who lives six or seven miles from town in Dunn County, Wisconsin. I askt him these questions with the intention of getting his personal expression on two points:

"Did your sons go to agricultural school?"

"Yes."

"Did they carry out home projects?"

"Yes."

"Would you, on the basis of that practical work, be willing to turn over the corn crop, the pig crop, or the butter crop on your farm to your son for him to manage and handle?"

"No."

"Why not?"

"That experience was too small."

"What would you desire for your son's practical farm experience thru his school training then?"

"Something that would give him connection with all the work of the farm; not one crop or one portion of farm work, but all the items that make

up farm business. I would want him to learn how to manage all the business of the farm and take care of the special things in their time and turn as a successful farmer must."

There you have it. "Home-project work too small—something bigger needed."

The conversation continued:

"You get good farm help?"

"Yes."

"What do you mean by 'good help'?"

"They take an interest in the farm. They work well and take care of things. They know what is going on all about the farm."

"How do you get such help?"

"I hire my men on a partnership sharing basis in the production of the farm."

"If your son's agricultural instructor askt you to take your son in on such a partnership basis, would you do it?"

"Would I? I wish I had the chance."

There it is—"a substitute in operation." Why not give all these fathers a chance to take their sons into the business on the same kind of a partnership basis on which they hire their help? I have yet to find one who will maintain that such an experience with a small unit of agricultural work is satisfactory in the preparation of an individual who expects to make farm work his business. The reason for this opinion is just what has been said—that the type of work represented by the home project, while it is good so far as it goes, fails to go far enough. It is piece work and special work on which any amount of time may be spent if necessary, and to which attention can be given at any time it may become necessary to attend to it, while in the actual practice of agriculture the dealings are not with these small units of work which can be given attention just at the time when they demand it. Instead there are a dozen other things which must be attended to at approximately the same time.

I want you to take recognition of the fact, and I believe thoroly that it is a fact, that it is mostly the one-time office boys who now sit in the managers' chairs in the business world. It is not the fellow who was an expert in the packing department, or an expert in the sales department, or an expert in the accounting department.

In my work in Wisconsin in connection with the State Board for Vocational Education, for which I serve as state supervisor of vocational agricultural instruction, we have succeeded in putting this desire for greater things in the nature of home work for students in agriculture on a real and practical basis. The number of boys who have been enroled in these partnerships up to the present date I am unable to give definitely, but I know of five counties in the state in which there are such partnership arrangements.

THE BIRTH AND CHILDHOOD OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION WITH A FORECAST OF ITS DEVELOPMENT DURING ADOLESCENCE

DAVID SNEDDEN, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The last fifteen years have been the toddling, teething stage of growth of vocational education. It has naturally been subject to many of the diseases of childhood. At times it was not certain that the infant would live; and some have doubted whether it was worth raising. The present writer can say with good grace that it has been a noisy brat; and he is well aware that some of its foster-nurses have made uninterested people rather tired by their predictions as to how the infant would some day become a lusty youth who would whip the other and less vulgar youths in the vicinity and even make some respectable older folks look to their laurels.

Since the whole-hearted entry of the national government into the support and partial direction of vocational education of the kinds here under discussion the entire situation has assumed a new aspect. The infant is no longer regarded as a foundling and interloper. He is growing and learning fast. We can see now that, while he will not meekly confine himself to a corner, neither is he likely to become a bully, even if in a few cases he is given for a while the food and freedom of "dual control." He is really capable of being civilized, even tho our refined schoolmaster senses will long object to the work-a-day clothing that he must perforce wear, and to the odors of machine shop and stable that necessarily cling to him.

One of the largest illusions now prevalent in vocational education is that a vocation, once entered upon by a young person, must be followed thru life. The fact is that modern life is organized very much on a series of occupational levels, and naturally the beginner enters upon some level adapted to his immaturity and inexperience. No one seriously expects a girl of sixteen to be a school principal or a housewife; yet in many states more than half of all girls at sixteen have already entered upon full-time wage-earning in callings that are truly juvenile occupations. No one expects a youth of eighteen to be a locomotive engineer, a machine-shop foreman, or a contractor. The man who is the typical farmer at the age of forty was probably a hired worker on a farm (his father's or another's) from sixteen to twenty-five, then a tenant or renter farmer, and in middle life a farmer managing his own land and capital. In all our great manufacturing callings there exist sometimes scores of levels indicated by varying wage rates, and to a large extent advancement from one to the other is effected on the basis of increasing maturity and experience and would be greatly simplified and expedited if, preliminary to each new level, adequate specific vocational training could be provided. Even in the so-called skilled trades—which are almost everywhere undergoing an inevitable

economic decline—the age of effective entry on apprenticeship is rising. Anciently in Europe it was in what we would now call childhood's year, and it is still as low as fourteen there. In America apprenticeship is rarely begun before sixteen, and in many cases eighteen is now preferred; yet many of those who must eventually become artisans are under necessity of contributing to their own self-support from the age of eighteen onward.

THE NEW EDUCATION IN AGRICULTURE BASED ON SOUND PEDAGOGY

WILLIAM R. HART, PROFESSOR OF AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION, MASSACHUSETTS AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, AMHERST, MASS.

In order to set forth some of the features of the new education in agriculture certain characteristics may be noted: first, it has definite objectives; secondly, it has definite modes of procedure in the endeavor to reach its objectives; thirdly, it has a multiplicity of means and appliances to be employed and, fourthly, the new education in agriculture has a good body of sanctions which justify it.

There are at least three rather distinct objectives which may be aimed at in agricultural study: vocational intelligence, personal satisfaction, and scientific research. As to the time of beginning vocational training, intelligent choice cannot be made before the years of a moderate degree of maturity of both mind and body. The mind must be able to master what is presented and the body must be able to handle the necessary appliances. Even a superficial analysis resolves vocational agriculture into a group of agricultural vocations. These agricultural vocations may be groupt under three main heads: productive, scientific, and social.

The second objective is personal satisfaction. The study caters to one's whims and satisfies a curiosity and desire to enter new fields of learning. The study of agriculture from the standpoint of personal satisfaction may seem to be a somewhat selfish one, yet the effect upon the person who studies from this viewpoint would be to make him a better neighbor, a more genial companion, and a more desirable citizen.

A third objective is scientific motivation. From the standpoint of education this puts the study of agriculture on a plane different from that of almost all other subjects. In the production of primary raw materials agriculture is a complex of interdependent arts. Take producing corn as an example. This involves the art of preparing a seed bed, which includes the art of using certain tools, some of them so specialized as to be useless for any other purpose. It involves the art of planting, of tillage, of harvesting, of preparing for market, or of storage. In the progress of this performance there is a complete change from one set of tools and appliances to another. Each step in the process from preparing the soil to preparing the

final product for market involves the art of using one or more specialized forms of machinery. Some of these machines are moved by man power, some by animal power, and some by mechanical power. Thus in the production of corn the operator must know the arts of the process as well as the arts of directing the power used to carry on the process.

Agriculture is the "vestibule of all the sciences." First, it is the earliest in origin. Many practices in crop and animal production considered sound now were in vogue many centuries before the dawn of the physical and biological sciences as we know them today. Secondly, it contains a most suitable body of material in facts and processes for the exercise of the mind in accumulating experimental knowledge of the world. Thirdly, the mystery of the facts and processes awakens a curiosity which does not stop at merely *wondering* why things are so, but which seeks to *know* why they are so. This attitude of inquiry is the forerunner, the herald, of the true spirit of scientific inquiry.

Sooner or later the inquisitive attitude becomes an active search. Searching is more concerned with discovering a truth than with merely solving a present difficulty. The mind passes from the consideration of things of immediate significance to the realm of reasons for related things. In short, curiosity about facts, inquisitive attitudes toward them, and the active search for an explanation of them are the ascending steps in the vestibule leading to the spacious room of pure science. In this way science or scientific research becomes a most important objective growing out of education in agriculture. This has some bearing on the method of procedure and the psychological sanctions of the theme to be discust later.

The mode of procedure in the new education in agriculture includes much more than simply methods of teaching. People engaged in many other vocations may take advantage of its messages. In addition to the various classes of persons affected, there is also an increasing definiteness in the plans of organized effort. The agencies made use of in organized effort are boys' and girls' clubs made up largely of school pupils but not confined to them, and extension projects for children, young people, and adults carried on as home enterprises under guidance. The procedure followed by these agencies has an element of informality which is more or less disturbing to some of our educational systematists. These haphazard modes of procedure are not so unsystematic as they appear. Four factors contribute to their educational value: (1) the instruction is for the most part timely or seasonal; (2) the problems are personal; (3) the information is applicable to individual needs; and (4) the knowledge imparted becomes power because it passes over into action.

Other and highly important modes of procedure are those of the special course in schools of secondary grade, the vocational schools of secondary grade, and the agricultural colleges. Thru these agencies the study of agriculture is related to the well-establisht machinery for promoting education.

The need of stressing practice in the agricultural arts in vocational courses is obvious. The knowledge gained thru practice is even to be preferred to a theory of why any given thing should be done. In pursuing a vocation for a livelihood knowledge of how to do things is an all-essential part of one's equipment.

It should be remembered that the aim or intent of the student rather than the method of learning determines whether or not the course is informational or vocational. Secondary schools of agriculture are avowedly vocational. Entrance into such a school is an implicit declaration of intention to pursue the subject toward a vocational end. Furthermore the end sought is in a large measure limited to the arts of production, either of crops from the soil or of live stock.

The agricultural college, strange as it may seem, has never been able to present a clearly defined aim. It has been repeatedly askt to produce farmers; it has produced some, but it has produced men and women for a multitude of other vocations, and also men for the professions of law, ministry, medicine, and education.

The mere fact that the agricultural college has always been regarded as a *college*, and therefore as dealing with college students, is sufficient to account for the apparent anomaly of an agricultural college turning out fewer agriculturists than members of other vocations. Under the influence of this type of college and the development which comes with advancing maturity, new interests spring up, new capacities for achievement reveal themselves, and new opportunities beckon the ambitious. Instead of seeing the product of the college gliding smoothly into a single occupation, we see the graduates drawn into many vocations.

Let us turn for a moment to the factors that give sanction to this work. For convenience these sanctions may be groupt as legal, psychological, and social. This involves the pedagogical aspect of the theme. The legal sanctions include federal legislation, state legislation, and local regulations. Four federal legislative acts stand out as epoch-making events in agricultural education in the United States. These are the act authorizing the establishment of agricultural colleges, the act authorizing experiment stations, the act authorizing extension teaching, and the act authorizing the teaching of agriculture of less than college grade. These are extremely important steps, but the series is still incomplete. Two more acts should follow in the near future, one for agriculture of less than secondary grade and one for agriculture above college grade.

A few observations are submitted relative to the psychological aspect of the case. In the first place agriculture makes a strong emotional appeal. It is socialized nature. Its objects and processes arouse the curiosity of the young. These same processes of growth in living things stimulate the scientific inquisitiveness of the mature, which is merely grown-up curiosity. The little child in his first garden is not only filled with curiosity over what

he sees in the germinating seed but has a feeling of triumph that he played some part in causing the seed to produce.

The cultural effects of the agricultural crafts are also worth while. The man who cultivates or improves a plant acquires the discipline of persistent effort. He secures something more than discipline. He demonstrates his power over the forces of nature. He can attack new problems with a courage born of conquest.

Education in agriculture makes its intellectual appeal also. The mind's effort to set before itself a problem is a revelation to itself of its own method of growth. To propound its own question and then proceed to the solution is the severest examination the mind can undergo. When a worth-while problem is once stated, interest springs up in response to the allurement of finding a solution. Herein is the psychological warrant for the educative value of the "project" as a method of study. The making of butter, the fattening of a pig, the producing of vegetables, the producing of eggs, all seem simple enough. When analyzed into their elements each one is found to contain factors that reach over into apparently unrelated fields of learning, like chemistry, physics, botany, and physiology. On this account the solution of a problem in agriculture affords the highest form of mental activity in the play of ideas.

Such a process gives educational value to facts and principles by putting the blood of utility into dead formulas. It conveys the important lesson that fundamental truths may be learned in the process of application. It also teaches that most, if not all, problems in agriculture must be solved by resorting to other related fields of learning.

The social sanctions which justify agricultural education are production on the one hand and agriculture as a mode of life on the other. The aim of production brings into sharp relief human interdependence. The agriculturist may suffer some isolation, but trade and transportation are essential factors in his vocation. This brings him into touch with the so-called outside world. Nevertheless the pursuit of agriculture must be thought of as a life with elements peculiar to itself. It has a distinctive group of industries.

The pursuit of agriculture as a mode of life works a profound influence upon civilization. Tho the study of agriculture may not impart any knowledge of the world's fine art, contact with nature and mother-earth nurtures the art impulse. Tho the artistic symmetry of plants and animals, the variety of shades in the colored woods, the ceaseless phantasy of the clouds, can never bring the student of agriculture into a knowledge of poetry, they will beget the poetic impulse. Tho the student of animal instincts in the management of herds may never learn of the work of great generals or statesmen, he will imbibe the impulses of leadership. The mind nurtured among nature's rugged laws, where life is a daily struggle with the unseen, of which the plant, or the storm, or the changing season is but the

symbol, is ripened into a toughened fiber that gives it that most coveted quality, the power to achieve.

Agricultural teaching aims at a more intelligent use of the forces of nature for the better sustenance of human life. When the college does all its work scientifically and primarily for human service rather than for the sake of science, when the common school can train children primarily for efficiency in adult activities rather than for mental discipline, when the farmer can go to his toil conscious of his power over natural forces and ply his trade primarily for fulness of life rather than for merely making a living, then the foregoing principle becomes a unifying force converging the activities of the three agencies, the college, the school, and the farm, toward the same goal—better men, better farming, better living.

EFFECT OF RURAL CONTINUATION SCHOOL ON AGRICULTURAL EFFICIENCY

RUFUS W. STIMSON, STATE SUPERVISOR OF VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION, BOSTON, MASS.

Those in charge of our program have singled out for discussion, continuation schooling as an aid to agricultural efficiency. It is understood that by continuation schooling is meant further education of those who, after reaching the age when they are no longer compelled to go to school full time, choose to attend school part time. It is further understood that the framers of this program have intended to limit the discussion to that type of education which directly addresses itself to the betterment of farming.

It is now exactly ten years ago that the speaker proposed and began to put into effect what has since come to be known very generally as the home-project plan of teaching agriculture. A home project may be defined briefly as a farming enterprise, studied and planned by a pupil at school and carried out on the farm where he lives, with the support and cooperation of his father or his employer and under the frequent supervision of his instructor.

The speaker believed ten years ago, and he believes today, that this plan is capable of universal application among high schools accessible to those who live on farms, who help with the regular farm work thruout the year, and who desire preparation for careers of efficient farming. He believed then, and still believes, that this plan is about equally well adapted to the needs of those who can attend school full time and of those who can attend only part time.

Home projects have been taught by high-school teachers of science who have made of them means of correlating science instruction with rural or suburban environments, but the home-project plan is likely to be most efficiently executed when the instructor is a practical farmer of ten years

or more of experience in farming like that of the locality in which the projects are to be conducted, is possest of at least the equivalent of a four-year course in an agricultural college, is not the principal of the high school, and is permitted to devote himself exclusively to the teaching of agriculture.

Given high-school instructors of adequate agricultural training and experience, the following are some of the advantages of home projects as aids to agricultural efficiency:

1. Home projects give better health. The efficiency of farming is too often impaired by an improper diet. A modest home project, suited even to the younger boy, but one which will promote farming efficiency thru a varied diet, may be the making of a good home garden. The garden should be of sufficient size to supply not only green food for summer use but also vegetables and small fruit for canning, drying, and other storage for continuous use at all other seasons.

2. Home projects save money. Not long ago the speaker had a most excellent meal at the home of a prosperous colored farmer in the South who was introduced as a man who "lives on his farm and boards at home." For his ample and varied diet, including vegetables and fruit, meat and milk and sweets, he did not depend on canned goods or other purchases from the market at the crossroads, in the village, or in the city. His food requirements were exacting, but he made his own farm meet them.

3. Home projects are patriotic. We are hearing it said, and in a very real sense we believe that it is true, that food will win the war. The nearer every farmer, white or black, North or South, East or West, can come today to living on his farm and boarding at home, the better patriot he will be.

We need have no hesitation, therefore, in tempting boys back into school to study and plan home projects. If they cannot come all day, let them come part of the day. If they cannot come on fair days let them come on rainy days.

Whether you are a vocational agricultural instructor, or only a teacher of science in a rural high school, be a "big brother" and a good one to every farm boy in your locality. Do not think that you must cram knowledge, ideas, or ideals into such boys. Just give them a chance to pick up the best you have to offer. Help them to study and plan improvements. Call to see how the improvements progress and boost a bit here and there when the home load is heaviest and the wheels turn hardest.

Many a boy who has graduated from school and feels that he has no further claim upon it needs your help and will profit from your home-project instruction. Arouse every such boy to the needs and possibilities of greater and greater agricultural efficiency.

Do not neglect the illiterate. "Telling" and "showing" are among the most valuable features of home-project instruction. They will lead the illiterate to greater efficiency in his agricultural work. They may lead him to thirst for knowledge and, by evening classes and other means, to mastery

of letters, figures, and at least the rudiments of a general education in worthy American ideas and ideals.

But do not array son against father. Array son with father. Repeated instances have shown that son and father may continue schooling together, and that, working together, the efficiency of their farming may be all the more rapidly advanst. And do not forget those older boys, the grown-up farmers who have no sons in your classes. Two fathers and two employers permitted three Massachusetts boys to conduct home projects by which four herds of dairy cows were cost-accounted for a year. Forty farmers attended a public meeting at which these boys, with the aid of blackboards, presented figures by which the relative profits from individual cows and various groups of cows were shown. They conducted a discussion and answered questions for more than two hours. A sequel of this meeting was a request from adult farmers for evening instruction in dairying.

Expose all to the contagion of agricultural efficiency. Whether they can spend little time with you, or much, trust the method. "Expose" them at home if they cannot come often enough to school. Keep all of these pupils "exposed" to every germ of agricultural efficiency which you yourself have caught, or which you can catch by keeping yourself perpetually exposed to all the influences which are making for agricultural betterment.

Bring out their best. Let your home-project instruction be a bugle call to the best in every farmer, young or old, in your locality—a drumbeat to brighten his eye, to quicken his step, and to hearten him with the sense of comradeship and proud endeavor.

With federal and state aid, pursuant to the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act, now available and hereafter to be at hand in increasing amounts, we may confidently expect to see vocational agricultural departments in high schools enormously multiplied thruout the country. With the extension of such departments conditions for continuation of schooling for farm boys and their elders will become more and more favorable. This, in the speaker's judgment, is one of the happiest auguries of this new movement in education.

DEPARTMENT OF SCIENCE INSTRUCTION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—W. H. Timbie, head of applied science department, Wentworth Institute.....Boston, Mass.
Vice-President—Chester B. Curtis, principal, Central High School.....St. Louis, Mo.
Secretary—Fred D. Barber, professor of physics, State Normal University.....Normal, Ill.

FIRST SESSION—Tuesday Forenoon, July 2

In the absence of President W. H. Timbie and Vice-President Chester B. Curtis, the meeting was called to order at 9:00 a.m. in the physical-science room of the Schenley High School by H. A. Calderwood, head of the electrical department of the Carnegie Institute of Technology. Ruth Hogan, Schenley High School, was appointed secretary.

The topic for the session was "Applied Science the Foundation of Modern Society as Revealed by the War," on which the following program was presented:

"Application of Science to Industry"—E. R. Weidlein, acting director of the Mellon Institute, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"Cooperation in Essential Industries as a Result of the War"—E. P. Harris, professor, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"Work at the University of Pittsburgh and the Carnegie Institute of Technology with the Soldiers Stationed There"—H. A. Calderwood, head of the electrical department, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"Demonstration of the Microscope Illuminator"—Alexander Silverman, professor, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Following these papers the members entered into a general discussion on "Applied Science the Foundation of Modern Society," after which a visit was made to the laboratories of the Schenley High School, which were open for inspection.

SECOND SESSION—Wednesday Forenoon, July 3

The meeting was called to order by C. C. Dunning, of the Peabody High School, Pittsburgh, Pa.

The following program was presented:

"Demonstration of Class Work"—P. M. Dysart, Schenley High School, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"Technical Training for Soldiers"—William E. Mott, dean of the School of Applied Science, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pa.

A general discussion on "How We Can Preserve Our Civilization or Our Reorganized Society so as to Get the Maximum Benefit of Each Man's Talents and Activities," led by Mr. Dunning, concluded the session.

THIRD SESSION—Friday Forenoon, July 5

The following program was presented:

Survey of the Chemistry Taught in the High Schools of Pennsylvania"—Alexander Silverman, University of Pittsburgh, Pa.

Officers for the next year were elected as follows:

President—Arthur S. Williston, director of Wentworth Institute, Boston, Mass.
Vice-President—E. R. Weidlein, acting director, Mellon Institute, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Secretary—George R. Twiss, state high-school inspector, Columbus, Ohio.

DEPARTMENT OF SPECIAL EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—Joseph P. Byers, 701–2 Empire Building.....Philadelphia, Pa.
Vice-President—Ida M. Manley, supervisor, Department for Defective Children.....Portland, Ore.
Secretary—Emma Kohnky, Burnet and Hearne Avenues.....Cincinnatti, Ohio

FIRST SESSION—Tuesday Forenoon, July 2

The meeting was called to order by President Joseph P. Byers at nine o'clock in the School for the Blind, Bellefield and Bayard streets.

After patriotic singing led by Walter Earnest, tenor, Pittsburgh, Pa., the following program was presented:

"The Educational Significance of Psychological Examining in the Army"—Robert F. Yerkes, major, Sanitary Corps, U.S.A., Washington, D.C.

"The Practice Value of Psychological Tests—Do They Find the Bright and Dull Pupils?"—Bertha M. Luckey, director of the psychological clinic, public schools, Cleveland, Ohio; A. H. Sutherland, school psychologist, Los Angeles, Calif.; Frank Cody, assistant superintendent of schools, Detroit, Mich.; Norbert J. Melville, director of the Psychological Laboratory, Philadelphia, Pa.

SECOND SESSION—Wednesday Forenoon, July 3

The following program was presented:

"Classes for Subnormal Children"—Alexander Johnson, field secretary, Committee on Provision for the Feeble-minded, Philadelphia, Pa.

"What and How to Teach Defectives"—Charlotte Steinbach, supervisor of special classes, Cleveland, Ohio.

"Overcoming the Objections of Parents to the Special Class—Can it be Done? How?"—H. E. Blackmar, superintendent of schools, Ottumwa, Iowa; Anna M. Kordsiemon, supervisor of Special School, Quincy, Ill.

"Teachers for Special Classes"—Eleanor A. Gray, director of department for supervisors and teachers of subnormal children, State Normal and Training School, Oswego, N.Y.

THIRD SESSION—Thursday Afternoon, July 4

The following program was presented:

"The Value of Follow-Up Work (after Supervision) of Special-Class Pupils—Its Effect on the Pupil, the Home, the Teacher. Does This Follow-Up Work Belong to the School? Can It Be Wholly or Partially Delegated to Other Agencies? If So, to What Agencies?"—Mamie Franks, special-class teacher, Oklahoma City, Okla.; Charlotte Steinbach, supervisor of special classes, Cleveland, Ohio.

"Does the Special Class Equip Pupils for Industrial Employment (or Unskilled, Domestic Work, Shop, or Factory) in the Community? Can the Cooperation of Employers during and following the Period of School Training be Secured, and How?"—Edith A. Scott, director of special classes, Rochester, N.Y.; N. M. Slauson, superintendent of schools, Ann Arbor, Mich.; E. R. Whitney, superintendent of schools, Schenectady, N.Y.; David B. Corson, superintendent of schools, Newark, N.J.

FOURTH SESSION—FRIDAY FORENOON, JULY 5

The following program was presented:

"The Advantage of the Special School over Segregated Classes"—Wilmer Kinnan, assistant superintendent of schools, Lynn, Mass.; W. P. Roseman, superintendent of schools, Sheboygan, Wis.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

President—Joseph P. Byers, Philadelphia, Pa.

Vice-President—Charlotte Steinbach, Cleveland, Ohio.

Secretary—Emma Kohnky, Cincinnati, Ohio.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

THE PRACTICAL VALUE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS—DO THEY FIND THE BRIGHT AND DULL PUPILS?

BERTHA M. LUCKEY, DIRECTOR OF THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CLINIC, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, CLEVELAND, OHIO

In any public school system we have a group of backward and retarded children. As far as their school work is concerned they are subnormal, but this alone does not tell us whether they are really subnormal mentally, or whether because of poor environment, physical, social, or otherwise, they have been held back. If we are to bring these children up to the standard of their age they will need special tutoring. In this group, however, there are those, so mentally inferior as to be clast as feeble-minded children, who, because of their lack of mental capacity, will never be able to grasp the regular academic branches. How shall we separate these children so that the feeble-minded group shall get its particular training and the others who can be benefited by it shall receive special tutoring? Shall we leave it to the teachers and doctors? Can they, without use of psychological tests, make a judgment as to the mental ability of these children? The doctor can judge of the child's physical well-being, his physical development, and also whether any special stigmata of degeneracy are present. Both the physician and the teacher have the personal appearance and actions of the child from which to make their judgment, but appearances may be deceiving.

As a rule, in our clinic, children are examined who are suspected of feeble-mindedness by the principal, teacher, or doctor. However, during this past year we were askt to examine a group of boys in our boys' school. The boys had been sent to this school because of troublesomeness in school or truancy, or because of some more serious trouble which had brought them under the jurisdiction of the juvenile court. One hundred and seventy-three boys were examined; they were in the first to the sixth grades, inclusive. In this school an effort was made to place the boys in the grade where they could do the best work. For example, if a boy's

card on entering the school showed that he was in the fourth grade at his former school, he was placed in that grade. If after a few weeks' time he showed that he could not do the work of that grade, he was put back into the third, or wherever he could master the work. If, on the other hand, it was found that he could do better work, he was promoted. On studying the results of the examination, a very positive correlation was notist between the number of years average that a boy was for his grade and the number of years he was below the normal mentality for his chronological age. That is, dulness in school was shown to correlate very positively with psychological defects. If on entering the school he had been examined carefully he could have been placed in the room where he belonged, without waiting for the trial of from three weeks to two or three months in the grade where, according to his school card, he had been placed. In this group there were two very bright boys, both of whom, according to the teacher's report, altho much younger than the other boys of their grade, were doing as good work, if not better, than the best of the class. On the other hand, one can give illustration after illustration of the success of psychological tests where other methods have failed, but in order that I may help, with the time limit set, I shall mention only four specific instances of this success.

At demonstrations last fall I had reason to use a normal child to contrast her reaction with a feeble-minded child. A little six-year-old girl, of very unprepossessing appearance, was sent in. It soon developt, thru the child's responses, that she was not only normal but very much brighter than a normal youngster. In fact she showed the mentality of an eight-year-old child. This unusual brightness was mentioned to the teacher and a special promotion advised. The child was tested again this spring and she still retained her mental advantage over normal children of her age.

The second case is of a boy coming from an unusually good home and very fine stock. The parents were very much concerned over the poor school reports that the boy brought home. He was not only reported as doing very poor school work but also as being very troublesome. He was eight years old at the time of the examination, but, much to the surprise of parents and examiner, he past the eleven-year-old tests easily. On the basis of the examination he was put in the next higher grade and since then has had no trouble with school work.

The third child was a girl in one of our moron girls' centers. This girl had acquired in her school a veneer which gave a false impression of her abilities. One felt that she could do much better than she was doing. The principal felt this so strongly that she askt that the girl be placed in a regular room, as she did not belong with feeble-minded children. The examiner, basing her judgment on the girl's response to the psychological tests, advised against it. The girl, however, was placed in a regular grade. After three months' trial, the principal came back with the very earnest request that the girl be placed back in a moron girls' center, as she couldn't

do the work of the regular school and was proving a disturbing factor in the room.

The fourth child was a seven-year-old girl who had just entered school. When the examiner visited the school the principal greeted her with the statement, "Oh! there was a girl so obviously feeble-minded in our first grade that I put her in the special class without waiting for her to be tested. I showed her to the school doctor and he said, 'Yes she's surely nuts.'" The examiner tested the child and found that, contrary to the teacher's and doctor's opinion, the child was normal. It then came out that the child, owing to peculiar home conditions, was very timid and not accustomed to playing or working with other children. On the advice of the examiner, she was placed in the kindergarten, where she soon learned how to play with other children. In a month's time there was a complete change for the better and in the four years that have elapst since this examination the child has moved thru school at a perfectly normal pace.

As the results of our clinic, work piles up, and the feeling grows stronger and stronger that while the psychological test may not be absolutely infallible, the percentage of error is much smaller and the results are very much clearer and more definite than in any other method, either pedagogical or medical, that can be devised. Practical experience with school children shows very clearly that psychological tests do pick out the dull and the bright pupils.

THE PRACTICAL VALUE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS—DO THEY FIND THE BRIGHT AND DULL PUPILS?

A. H. SUTHERLAND, SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGIST, LOS ANGELES, CALIF.

Any instrument, in the manipulation of which an individual shows his information, ability, or knowledge, is a psychological object. Any set of psychological objects arranged to constitute a problem to an individual is a psychological test.

Every recitation is a test for those who take part in it. Every examination, written or oral, is a test. Every examination of a form used by others or set before pupils elsewhere is a psychological test. Every formal set of exercises or every formal set of questions on which the performance of normal children is known advances a stage toward greater accuracy and is therefore a form to be preferred. Every set of questions or every outline of activities to be performed on which the normal performances of children of different abilities or ages is known is a scientific test, because it lends itself to classification of results and prediction on the basis of the results. But of all the general abilities shown in school work, or playground, or sloyd, or other manual or mental operations, the laboratory has shown that these are made up of simpler mental and nervous functions which have become integrated by practice. The test which is aimed to expose

the stage of advancement attained by an individual in the performance of one of these simpler operations is the product of laboratory psychology, and is the only kind of test which can finally be of educational service.

A Binet test is a set of particular questions from which it is easy to generalize. It is therefore spoken of as a general-intelligence test. By means of this test it is possible to compare the relative accuracy of teachers' judgments with a scientific test. Of 1000 children tested in the Los Angeles schools (all the pupils of twenty-two ungraded rooms and two parental schools and the failures in Grades I to VI in twenty-two elementary schools) the following comparison has been made:

	Teacher's Judgment	Scientific Test
Ungraded rooms	100 per cent defective	74.2 per cent defective
Parental schools	100 per cent defective	81.0 per cent defective
Non-promotion	100 per cent defective	36.4 per cent defective

It cannot be doubted that many factors enter into the judgment of the teacher which are eliminated by the scientific test. This is indeed the purpose of the scientific test.

Any test is as good as, and no better than, the person who uses it. There is some pretense that certain psychological tests can be used automatically and mechanically. I have not found it so in my own experience. After teaching several hundred teachers to perform some of the rough preliminary tests (such as the Binet in one or more of its modifications) I have become more and more convinst that teachers will find innumerable ways to vary the procedure; and I am also firmly convinst that they will not do full justice to the child unless they do vary their procedure. There is always an interpretation to be considered. In the minds of many teachers the arithmetic, reading, spelling, and geography tests are being used to diagnose mental defect. This is frequently a rank injustice to the pupils. In many cases I have found a high grade of mentality in children who have fallen in the lower quartile on the standardized school tests. Every teacher should learn to perform the tests, not for purposes of diagnosis of children, but for the guidance of her own behavior toward them.

Tests should be used analytically. First find the arithmetical operation, the reading operation, the spelling operation, which can be performed at or above the median; then find the information and ability as indicated by some modification of the Binet test; and in the light of these two facts test the senses, perceptions, memories, associations, discriminations, apperceptions, and logical abilities as indicated. It is clear, if this is good advice, that a psychological-laboratory training is indispensable to accurate testing.

In some school systems of approximately 10,000 children there will be solved the problems of speed classes, extra promotions, and the care of backward and defective pupils. Here, I venture to predict, the schoolroom tests will be performed, not once merely, but at regular intervals as practice exercises. The teacher and pupil in collaboration will work out

for each pupil his learning curve. The pupil will find in this objective marking system a basis of comparison of his own abilities and progress coordinate with similar marking methods of the playground and of life. He will find in it his best stimulus and his best reward. He will cultivate the moral qualities, the manly and womanly qualities, the social qualities, and the individuality which society will demand of him. He will remodel the teacher. From a day laborer engaged in shoveling facts into thick heads she will begin to assume her proper function, that of guide and inspiration to the enthusiasms of life.

Psychological tests, in the hands of the expert, not only find the bright and the dull pupils but enable us to grade them and rank them objectively. More important still, we are enabled to discover what to do for them, and to predict with a fair measure of scientific accuracy the extent to which they will avail themselves of the opportunities which are set before them.

THE PRACTICAL VALUE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS—DO THEY FIND THE BRIGHT AND DULL PUPILS?

FRANK CODY, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DETROIT, MICH.

A psychological clinic is a clearing-house whose function it is to help in the solution of all kinds of problem cases. It is to the teacher what the specialist is to the general physician. To it are brought the exceptional or atypical children, the misfits in the school system. It is the duty of the staff of the clinic—clinical psychologists, physicians, social workers—to discover the cause of the child's retardation and prescribe the proper remedial treatment, whether the treatment be educational, medical, or social. Its practical value to a school system may perhaps be best shown by describing the types of cases it investigates, thus giving an idea of the scope of its work.

1. *Feeble-minded or permanently retarded children.*—Of these children the clinic will exclude from school the ones of so low a grade that they cannot be educated, and thus the system will be saved from the paradoxical situation of attempting to educate those incapable of training. Those children who can to a limited extent be taught will thru the clinic be assigned to special classes, where it is possible to adjust school activities to the child's own rate of progress. In addition to the service thus rendered thru the clinic to the feeble-minded child, there will be the inestimable benefit to the regular grade child of removing the feeble-minded from the regular grade room.

2. *Restorable cases.*—Normal children who are pedagogically retarded thru late entrance, half-day sessions, poor teaching, peculiar mental make-up, etc., may be assigned to a restoration class, where, under the direction of an expert teacher especially trained to understand such cases,

the work of the room may be adjusted to meet the child's developmental needs. By such treatment these children can be restored to the regular grade, and thus the system will be saved from the waste of repetition and failure.

3. *The normal child with certain specific mental defects which do not exclude the possibility of normal progress but require special treatment.*—Thru the advice of the clinic these cases can be taken care of by the regular teacher, thus saving the child and the system from the cost of failure or from the expense of residence in a special class or a restoration class.

4. *Disciplinary cases.*—Thru the clinic the teacher may be advised as to their treatment, or they may be assigned to ungraded classes.

5. *Speech cases.*—Thru the clinic these cases may be assigned to special speech teachers for correction of speech defects interfering with normal progress.

6. *The child with physical defects which interfere with normal progress.*—These cases may be directed to physicians or medical clinics for remedial treatment, or, in cases where the defect makes special educational treatment necessary, as in the case of the blind, deaf, etc., the child may be assigned to the proper special class.

7. *The supernormal child.*—By this we mean the child who is capable of progressing at a more rapid rate than the normal child, or who is capable of a richer, fuller course. These children, considering their possibilities, are often more retarded than subnormal children. As they are probably our future leaders, it is of the greatest importance that we give them an education fitted to their needs, one which will make them the right kind of leaders.

8. *Vocational guidance.*—Allowing a child when he leaves school to find for himself his place in the industrial world is expensive for him and uneconomical for society. Psychological testing has advanst to a point where it can render valuable assistance in finding the vocation to which a boy or girl is best adapted, thus saving the child and society much valuable time and service.

Can this work be done without a psychological clinic? I do not believe it can be done efficiently or without much waste. The experience of any clinic will verify the statement that most teachers are not qualified properly to place these misfits in the school system. Deaf children are declared by the teacher to be "stupid," disciplinary cases are called feeble-minded. The bright child is often not appreciated, because he is compared with children older than he chronologically. Or a child is declared bright because he makes a good appearance or expresses himself very well. Such a child was recently examined at the clinic. He had been placed in a class for bright children. When tested he was found only normal, with a special gift in language. He was even a little below par in mathematical subjects. By the report of the teacher of the class he was as much of a drag upon her

children as the subnormal is upon the normal child. A psychological test before placing that child would have prevented his assignment to a room where he was obviously a misfit.

In order to be of the greatest value to a public-school system, the psychological clinic must be well organized, with adequate equipment. Provision must be made for a physical and sociological examination, as well as for a mental examination. The staff of the clinic must be both trained and experienst. A set of standardized tests do not constitute a psychological clinic, altho they are a valuable aid to diagnosis. Mentality is very complex and cannot be measured by a yardstick or weighed on a scale. The use of standardized tests in a slide-rule fashion is productive of much harm. To be of value, the test must be interpreted. The purpose of the examination is to make a mental analysis of the child similar to the analysis the chemist makes of a chemical compound. The mental analysis should discover what assets and defects the child has, and on the basis of this analysis the examiner can prescribe the treatment best adapted to the child's needs and best directed to secure the maximum mental development for that child.

That principals and teachers do not know the various types of subnormal children is shown by the investigation undertaken by the psychological clinic this year. Four rooms for children pedagogically retarded but believed to be normal by teachers were examined, with the following results: Of the 202 children examined, 64, or 32 per cent, were normal; 62, or 31 per cent, were dull; 76, or 37 per cent, were feeble-minded or border-line.

The psychological clinic examined 1620 cases this year. These cases are reported to the clinic by the school principal or teacher as candidates for special classes of various types. Of these, 10 per cent were normal and 35 per cent dull. Only 55 per cent, or a little over half, were found to be border-line or feeble-minded children.

That the psychological clinic is of inestimable value to a public school system is thus easily demonstrated.

WHAT AND HOW TO TEACH DEFECTIVES

CHARLOTTE STEINBACH, SUPERVISOR OF SPECIAL CLASSES,
CLEVELAND, OHIO

Our first business is teaching what is necessary to bring the pupil more nearly in line with normal children in appearance and conduct. If he is dirty, slovenly, rude, and indolent, we must train him to habits of cleanliness, neatness, and politeness.

Then comes initiation into the "what and how" to do best those things that must be done in every schoolroom to keep it presentable, orderly, and

clean. These things must be taught to a greater or less extent to nearly every special pupil upon entrance to the class.

The curriculum for special-class pupils places most emphasis upon hand training, beginning with simplest exercises for those of low grade or those with weak coordination, and progressing to the departmental work carried on in the schools for morons. With the high-grade classes undoubtedly the best work can be done where specialists are provided to teach the different lines of work, such as domestic science and manual training, sewing, weaving, brush-making, and work with reed. Those moron pupils who have had several years of experience in such training centers generally develop considerable skill.

As much academic work should be given as can be profitably used by the pupil: simple number work closely correlated to life's problems, reading as advanst as can be appreciated, and, most important perhaps, oral and written language, enabling the pupil to express himself as well as possible.

As to how we should teach defectives, that depends upon the special make-up of each child. Each teacher must work out her own salvation, studying her charges individually.

A short time ago a regular grade teacher of domestic science visited one of our girls' centers and spent some time in the sewing-room. Later she made this criticism to the directing teacher of the center: "I saw some excellent work in the room, but some of the girls were holding their work in awkward fashion and one girl actually held her needle in her left hand." The directing teacher replied, "After the girls have been with us for some time their ways will improve, but as for the girl you saw with the needle in her left hand, we are glad she'll hold a needle at all. For the present, in fact, I would be happy (knowing her as I do) if she would work with her toes, if we couldn't do better."

Do what you can in any way you can go as far as you can, is a fair motto for our special classes.

OVERCOMING THE OBJECTION OF PARENTS TO THE SPECIAL CLASS—CAN IT BE DONE? HOW?

H. E. BLACKMAR, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, OTTUMWA, IOWA

Any program for improvement of school work must begin with the teacher. Of course every teacher should be patient, sympathetic, energetic, progressive, and resourceful; but the teacher who gets real results with subnormal children surely must have all these qualities in the highest possible degree.

The subnormal child lacks the incentive of completing the school course, which is such a strong factor in keeping the normal child in school and in keeping his work up to the required standard. He sees little or no relation of the school work to his future needs; so the teacher, while keeping

the future of the child in mind, must make her appeal almost wholly thru the accomplishments and the satisfaction of the day. This child lives largely in the present, and the small tasks accomplisht and the word of praise given mean much more to him than to the one who is accustomed to success. Only the most resourceful and tactful teacher discovers what task to assign and how to get the best possible response.

The course of study for a subnormal room—if it may be called by that name—should be made as different as may be from the regular work of the class, first, that it may be better adapted to the needs of the children, and secondly, that it may prevent comparison with the regular work, which may be a source of dissatisfaction to both pupils and parents. Different textbooks are used, definitely graded books are avoided. The teacher has a smaller number of pupils, a greater variety of work is given, and pupils are not held to any definite accomplishment. Some class work, however, is more satisfactory to pupils and gets better results because it stimulates rivalry.

The parents of subnormal children are not especially critical of the associates or the environment of their children, and their educational ideals are not of the highest. The camouflage of ungraded room, special-help room, or opportunity room is sometimes revealed by the pupils who use the plain term "dummy room." This may annoy sensitive parents, but they can easily be persuaded that such terms are not so humiliating to the child as is the constant comparison of his class work with that of children who can accomplish so much more than is possible for him. The low educational ideals of such parents make them indifferent to the loss of regular classification, because the purpose of finishing a definite course is lacking, and they do not appreciate the value of the organized work of the grades as a foundation for further educational progress.

The number of subnormal children whose condition is due to causes other than heredity is comparatively small, and if they are sent to the public schools their parents must be dealt with as individuals. Such parents more readily appreciate the handicap of their children and their need of special help than do parents whose mental condition is more like that of their children.

Parents of subnormal children are not different from the average parents in that they give comparatively little attention to the school life of their children as long as the child is contented and happy; and a special room for subnormal children, properly conducted, cannot fail to make the children happier and more contented with their work. Most human beings have more or less ambition to do something better than other people can do it, or at least to appear to do so. The only chance for the subnormal child to excel is to compete only with his kind. As long as the child is happy and is able to display some accomplishments and some successes, however small they may be, the parents are satisfied.

OVERCOMING THE OBJECTION OF PARENTS TO THE SPECIAL CLASS—CAN IT BE DONE? HOW?

ANNA M. KORDSIEMON, SUPERVISOR OF SPECIAL SCHOOL, QUINCY, ILL.

In the important task of overcoming the objection of parents to the special class much depends upon the tact and personality of the person with whom the parent has the interview.

If the transfer from the regular grade to the special school is made only after a careful investigation of the case, a scientific test, and perhaps a physical examination, then the teacher or supervisor is fairly well equipt with facts to show that the child's welfare is being considered. I have found that meeting the mother in her own home usually brings the best results. Here the sympathetic teacher may meet the mother on her own ground, and often the mother will confide in her and give her exactly the information needed in the care and training of the child in school.

Every argument should be used to show that the change is being considered for the child's good, and that it is not a matter of ostracizing the child. The smaller groups in the special school permit more individual observation and instruction, and the child may be able, by special effort, to regain his place in the grade. It may be pointed out that this is frequently done. The hope of reaching a higher grade sometimes proves an incentive to the retarded child, and in the special school his weak points may be more closely studied and he may be able to make reasonable progress. A child is rarely equally deficient in all branches of study, and here he is permitted to advance as rapidly as possible in those particular lines in which he has ability, while he is given special time and attention in those in which he is "short." In the special school progress in even a single branch will mean much in the way of encouragement to the child and the parents. Children feel that they have been promoted when permitted to do higher work, regardless of grade rules.

For those physically handicapt, as well as for those of slow mentality, the special school should be a help. Sometimes, thru repeated failure, the child has become discouraged, and the parents are in despair. Here the optimistic teacher has the opportunity of pointing out some special bent of efficiency (be it ever so little) in the child; she may show that thru industrial or other special work the backward child may be stimulated to renewed interest and may even excel in some line of activity.

The child in the special school escapes the ridicule of more fortunate children while working with his equals. He is happy in his work, and we all know that happiness is the great essential in child life. Here in his own little world he is given the opportunity of bringing out the best that is in him and of working out the problem as he sees it. He may have encountered years of failure and, because he is a misfit, have suffered undeserved censure; for such a child the special school is certainly the most

desirable place. Parents generally desire to see their children happy, and this desire often proves the "open sesame."

The greater freedom given these children is a help, both physically and mentally, especially in the cases of restless, irritable, so-called nervous, children—all the types with but little emotional control. Here due allowance is made for their limitations. Sometimes the attention of parents may be called to a physical condition that may be improved or entirely corrected by expert treatment. Many children improve both physically and mentally under special care.

I believe that many of the younger children may be saved from retardation or deficiency if taken in the early stages of development. Sometimes slight deafness has been neglected or eye defects ignored; sometimes it is a matter of malnutrition or imperfect dentition. Parents are often surprised to learn that there is something out of the ordinary in the physical condition of their child.

When parents send their children to school they intrust to the teacher's care their most precious possessions. How very essential it is then that there should be a perfect understanding between parents and teacher. Many parents have never even made the acquaintance of the teacher. In some cases it is a feeling of indifference; in others a spirit of antagonism, because the child has not made progress with his comrades. Friction always has a bad reaction. One friendly visit to the home may help to eliminate much of the difficulty.

Sometimes a parent gives a half-hearted, reluctant sanction to the transfer of the child from the grade school. Such a parent, in noting signs of improvement in the child, is usually convinst in a short time that the child is in his proper place. If the sympathetic, helpful, optimistic teacher is able to gain the confidence of the parent (usually the mother) and to awaken a response in the inert, backward child, much has been accomplisht toward success.

Looking at the case from every viewpoint, never forgetting that the parent has the right to wish the child placed in the most desirable environment, the teacher must be ready to point out every advantage to be anticipated by the change. She must pave the way for a constant, harmonious working together of home and school, with every effort made for the welfare of the child, and with the ideal always leading onward.

The child's happiness in his work and the parents' conviction that everything is planned and carried out for the child's improvement physically, mentally, and morally, must work toward overcoming the objection. Even the "least of these" who come under our care is worthy of our special attention, and every valid incentive must be brought forth to overcome the objection to the special school, so that parents and teachers will work hand in hand, a united force for the welfare of the child.

AFTER-SCHOOL CARE OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED

CHARLOTTE STEINBACH, SUPERVISOR OF SPECIAL CLASSES,
CLEVELAND, OHIO

Ask any special-class teacher what is the greatest problem attacht to the special class, and she will say, "The after-school period." The thing that causes the special-class teacher unhappiness and discontent is her realization that much, perhaps most, of her work will go for naught after her pupils leave school.

As we view the situation in our home field we find ourselves classifying our special-class pupils about as follows:

A small percentage (perhaps 10 or 15 per cent) come from good homes, belong to the moron type, have good social traits, are fairly reliable and trustworthy, and will get on well enough under the supervision of their parents or guardians.

A much larger group (perhaps 30 or 40 per cent) should be considered permanent institutional cases—imbeciles for the most part, but a few of the moron group, flighty, unstable, undependable. No scheme of supervision out in the world will ever be adequate to insure proper care and protection to these.

The rest of our special-class pupils may be considered as needing partial supervision after school age. It is this group which claims our attention just now. These are morons coming from poor environment or, if from good homes, manifesting anti-social traits.

Some who discuss the question of the after-care of special-class pupils seem to assume that we should plan just for follow-up work out in the world. Dr. Walter E. Fernald recently said: "There is now needed something between permanent segregation and no care. We may be able to distinguish between those who can go out into the community and those who must stay in an institution. The ideal should be segregation for those who need it and supervision in the community for those suitable for community life."

It seems to me that a program for the care of the feeble-minded must include more steps than these. Normal children leave school at fifteen or sixteen; is it not obvious that the feeble-minded need longer to fit themselves for the world? If we could send most of our morons (all with poor records) to a training school until they are ready to go out into the world under supervision, back to their homes, or into colonies, perhaps we should approach more nearly a proper solution of this matter.

Sending special-class pupils out into the world with no supervision is almost comparable to starting an automobile off without any driver. Whether the pupil enters the industrial world directly from a special class or from an institution, he needs the friendship, the advice, the encouragement, the directing force which the field worker would be in a position to

give. We believe that the follow-up work would wonderfully encourage and stimulate the special-class teacher, cheer the home, and strengthen the pupil, just as the work of the juvenile court probation officer helps the delinquent under his charge.

As the special-class pupils are under the supervision of the school authorities for years, probably follow-up work could best be managed thru the school organization, with the close cooperation of the juvenile court. Possibly a field worker (I should prefer a school nurse) might take charge of all special-class graduates until they are eighteen, and then hand over the supervision to a juvenile court probation officer. It might be that a special office to handle this work could be establisht in connection with our juvenile courts, just as the Mothers' Pension Bureau has been.

DOES THE SPECIAL CLASS EQUIP PUPILS FOR INDUSTRIAL EMPLOYMENT?

E. R. WHITNEY, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SCHENECTADY, N.Y.

Ever since 1893, when special classes were first organized in Providence, R.I., for the care of subnormal children, there has been a segregation and assembling of all kinds of abnormal children, without distinct classification, into special classes all over the country. This promiscuous mixing of feeble-minded, incorrigibles, backward children, eccentric children, and others of varying degrees of abnormality and miscibility soon results in a decantation of the lighter and more fluid effervescent portion—the incorrigibles—into state industrial homes, where they receive institutional care, and leaves a heavy residue composed chiefly of the backward children and a substratum of feeble folk, too heavy to decant and rather too inert for fusion. In some school systems an effort is made to separate, by what might be called filtration, the backward children from the rest, leaving a special class composed mostly of morons.

In most feeble-minded children the power of attention is both weak and intermittent, and is hard to gain and harder to hold. With practically no concentration little real instruction can be given, because with constant inattention memory has little chance of being imprest, and there is little possibility of utilizing either judgment or reason.

It is evident that academic education should for the most part be discarded, and that much observational and some handwork should be given. Attempts thru the regular manual-training shops to prepare for mechanical trades result in failure. When given handwork, such as weaving mats, braiding baskets, raffia work, sewing, knitting, etc., better results are observed.

What showing do these graduates of atypical classes make out in the world? They sometimes do well at boys' jobs, blind-alley occupations, and

other employment requiring no great degree of judgment, where there is *constant* intelligent supervision. If an intelligent, sympathetic person were employed to follow up these helpless folk, find employment for them, and keep in touch with their employers and their homes, something would be gained, but I fear not much, for they are lawless and irresponsible and soon tire of supervision.

No matter how hard the subnormal tries, he cannot compete with normals. He is constantly failing, both at home and in his work. His parents, his employers, his associates, are likely to mistake his inability for laziness or "cussedness" and punish him unmercifully in one way or another. It is not easy to discover what tasks are within his grasp, and the employer has no time for such discovery.

For many of these children the school is home, mother, country, and all. The public city school is good as far as it goes, but it cannot be with the child twenty-four hours in the day, seven days in the week, and fifty-two weeks in the year, nor for all the years of his life. It gives only a very small fraction of time to the child. What these children need and will always need, for they will always be children tho in adult bodies, is a home—a colony—provided by the state, whose motto should be that of the great institution at Vineland, "Happiness first; all else follows."

The real question of this discussion is, it seems to me, not whether the special class should give a training suitable for industry, or whether the labor of these subnormals is valuable, but whether the product of the special class, even if prepared to do manual or brain work, should ever be allowed to mingle freely with normal persons and eventually damage society.

Governor Whitman, of New York, has rightly said that "mental deficiency is today perhaps the greatest social problem that confronts the state." He is right. The danger is increast because of the fact that tho these subnormals may resemble normals in stature and appearance, they have the minds of children and sometimes the vices of demons, and are at large, free to reproduce their kind at will. They have not the ability to cope with competitive conditions and frequently land in charitable institutions—almshouses and the like—or else become a burden on a relative or a kind friend.

Under no circumstances should the public, municipal, village, or rural schools become a party to the plan of feeding such material thru industrial employment into society. The state should give institutional, if not custodial, care to these unfortunates. Let the special classes in the schools be maintained, but only as waiting-stations or transfer points in which the real defective is detained for searching examination and prolonged observation before the state comes in to take complete charge. Too many of our school directors forget that the chief and paramount function of the local public schools is *education*, not dentistry, not medicine, not optometry, not even custodial care of the unfortunate. The locality cannot have the

facilities to do well all of these things, however desirable, and if these accessory things are done, they are often done by depleting the treasury which should be used for regular education. Only a great aggregation of communities, in other words, the state, can do these things and do them well. Let us once and for all abandon our wild competition with the state and our usurpation of its functions and its institutions. Let us unite in securing from the state an adequate program for the handling of this problem.

DOES THE SPECIAL CLASS EQUIP PUPILS FOR INDUSTRIAL EMPLOYMENT IN THE COMMUNITY? CAN THE CO-OPERATION OF EMPLOYERS DURING AND FOLLOWING THE SCHOOL PERIOD BE OBTAINED AND HOW?

DAVID B. CORSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, NEWARK, N.J.

The term "special class" requires definition. It may refer to the class where there are fifteen grades of feeble-minded pupils, or it may refer to the homogeneous class having special work in industrial training. Small returns only can be expected from classes of the first type; so small that it seems hardly justifiable to spend the money necessary to maintain them. It is not, in my opinion, sound policy to maintain such classes, at least in large communities. The only isolated special class that can be really serviceable to the pupils enrolled in it is the one composed of normal pupils who, by special effort and instruction, seek to catch up in the work of the regular classes. These normal pupils, because of absence or slowness, have been unable to maintain themselves in their respective grades and must be, for their own good and the well-being of their classes, removed for a time. The special isolated class should be a restoration class. This is the only type of isolated class that should find place in the regular schools, except as a makeshift. The special class of homogeneous grading *can and does equip* pupils for industrial employment.

The program of studies for the industrial classes for defectives in the Newark schools includes carpentry and cabinet-making, weaving, brush-making, basket-making, chair-caning, laundering, dressmaking, gardening, cooking, house-cleaning, serving, waiting, cobbling, and shoeblacking. All of these have been taught successfully, and they afford a good general training of the character under discussion. There can be no doubt that the success is sufficient basis for a positive statement that some feeble-minded can be made manually efficient. Many of the pupils obtain employment at good wages.

It must not be inferred, of course, that all who have been or can be trained are or will be equally successful, or that the duty of the school is performed when the pupil has been recommended and has secured a job. He is still a feeble-minded person.

The remedy for difficult cases may be found partially in educating employers of labor. They do not understand feeble-mindedness, altho they may recognize it. They must know that the feeble-minded workman is easily angered, leaves his job on small provocation, and does not consider the consequences of such action. Feeble-minded people have "spells." The employer must know this, and if he can manage the "spell time" tactfully and skilfully he will reduce the labor turnover in his factory and conduce to the well-being of his charges, for these people are as truly charges of the employer as they are of the teacher.

The right educational policy to follow in securing positive affirmative answers to the two questions seems to warrant the establishment of school centers for those having sufficient mentality to profit by the training. The five or more classes together should constitute what might be called a Binet school, each having a vocational-training class. The best type of Binet school must have for each sex at least the following accommodations fully equipt: a kindergarten, a gymnasium, a kitchen and dining-room, a manual-training shop or sewing-room, a garden, an academic room, and a vocational shop. This will permit careful classification into three groups. The school should not be larger than one hundred and twenty-five pupils. The kindergarten should be of low-grade pupils and should have them all day long on the class system; the gymnasium, kitchen, and dining-room, manual shop or sewing-room, and academic room should constitute a departmental circuit for as many different classes, the garden in season being additional to the shop or sewing-room. Such classes should be of ascending grades, and promotion from one to another should be made when warranted. Above these should be the industrial shop, having the highest-grade pupils. The classes in the departmental cycle should have the general educational aim, but the shop should have the vocational aim.

To train the feeble-minded for industrial employment the program of studies must be based upon the broadest possible sense training and a wide "experience training." We must provide, purposefully, intelligently, and systematically sense and basic experiences in very great numbers. It will undoubtedly prove true that many will not profit, but some will, even tho in varying degrees of satisfaction. Those who do well will be the pupils who can be trained for vocational employment.

The teacher of the special class must work with the employer as well as with the pupil, and teach him to guide the boys and girls and to be patient with them. To do this great task there must be some form of supervision and vocational guidance, as suggested, either by the teachers or by other experts. There must be much follow-up work by the supervisor, so that a body of suggestive and valuable information may be collected, and so that the influence of the supervisor upon the worker and the employer shall be helpful. We have so much to learn in this field that it is mere speculation to discuss it now. The one fact that is clear is that

supervisory work must be done, and that it must be done by the best-educated, the keenest, and the wisest person obtainable. How to obtain the cooperation of employers for the apprenticeship period must be answered by the efforts of the school authorities and the supervisor. They must obtain it. There must be a propaganda or campaign of education by the former, and persuasion, personal work, and follow-up work by the latter. Widespread knowledge of the problem and intelligent and wise oversight and friendliness will secure it.

However, given the right grade of pupils, the wisest educational policy, the well-organized school, the right program of studies, the best equipment, and the most skilful teachers, even then the problem is solved for a chosen few only. Even the best can do only work of routine character, requiring little initiative. They work as machines and need a guiding hand. There will be others who cannot be employed in the industries, for their minds are not strong enough to do more than the most menial and most mechanical kinds of work. What shall be done with them? Shall classes and schools be maintained merely to occupy these children until, lacking the care of parents or relatives or friends, they become the criminals and outcasts of society? No. The state must assume responsibility. There must be a state policy, well carried out. The conception underlying the American educational scheme is that all shall be educated. If a child be able to learn much or little, *that* should he learn. His learning should be to some purpose. For the feeble-minded child that purpose must be self-support, if possible, even tho in the humblest manner. If society will not give him work, the state must. Several states have establisht homes for the feeble-minded and colonies where farming is carried on by them under direction. This points the way. If the state may establish farms where custodial care and home comforts and supervised work are provided, why not factories, laundries, bakeries, and other institutions, where under like conditions those too feeble-minded to care for themselves may help carry the load of the state by earning their own way? This will be less satisfactory and less valuable than the life in the open, but it is necessary to help the feeble-minded.

In a democracy there must be not only equal opportunity but a measurable distribution of the comforts and blessings and happiness of life. The state seeks to protect all against ignorance, delinquency, disease, vice, and dependency. Her chief and most effective method is by education. Until all her people learn and recognize the moral law of "visiting the iniquities of the father upon the children unto the third and fourth generation of them that hate me," she must herself attempt regulation and bear the greater part of the burden, receiving such assistance as the beneficiary may be able to render.

DEPARTMENT OF MUSIC EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—Osbourne McConathy, professor of music, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.
Vice-President—Teresa Finn, supervisor of music.....St. Louis, Mo.
Secretary—Philip C. Hayden, editor of *School Music*.....Keokuk, Iowa

FIRST SESSION, Wednesday Forenoon, July 3

In the absence of President McConathy, the Department was called to order at 9:00 a.m. by the vice-president, Miss Teresa Finn. Mr. W. B. Kinnear, of Larned, Kan., was appointed secretary *pro tem.*

The exercises were opened by the singing of "The Star-Spangled Banner" under the direction of Mr. Will Earhart, of Pittsburgh. Following this song Mr. Earhart read his paper, "The Essential Factors in Music Education." At the close of this paper Mr. McConathy, president of the department, and Mr. Hayden, secretary, having arrived, assumed their respective stations.

After the reading of Mr. Earhart's paper the department sang a song by John A. Carpenter, "The Home Road," led by Mr. Earhart. Then followed a paper by President McConathy, "In What Direction Is Public-Music Education Tending?" At the close of this paper the department sang the song, "America's Battle Cry," the words of which are by Mr. Congdon and the music by Mr. Earhart, under the direction of Mr. Gantvoort. Mr. Gantvoort then conducted a song, the music of which was written by himself, "They Go to End War."

President McConathy appointed the following nominating committee: W. B. Kinnear, Larned, Kan., Chairman; Miss Eunice Ensor, Detroit; and Miss E. Jane Wisenall, Cincinnati.

A general discussion of the proposition of teaching the various instruments, including piano, in classes, was participated in by Mr. Baltzell, of Boston; Mrs. Clark, of Camden, N.J.; Mr. McConathy, of Evanston, Ill.; Miss Teresa Finn, of St. Louis; Miss E. Jane Wisenall, of Cincinnati; Miss Eunice Ensor, of Detroit; Mr. Will Earhart, of Pittsburgh; and others. Another feature of the discussion was a reference to the remarkable work of Professor Carl Seashore in the psychological laboratory of Iowa University and the system for measuring music ability which he has developt and made practical.

Dr. William B. Owen, of the Chicago Normal College, gave a most interesting address on the subject of "The New Place of Music in Public-School Education."

On motion the session adjourned.

SECOND SESSION, Wednesday Evening, July 3

President McConathy called the evening meeting to order and introduced Mr. Lee Hanmer, War Department Commission of Training Camp Activities, who gave a talk on "Music in the United States Army and Navy Camps." This address was followed by an active demonstration of methods and practices in camp music by John B. Archer, division song leader, Camp Custer, Mich. Mr. Hanmer and Mr. Archer gave very interesting talks and demonstrations, and the audience took great pleasure in singing the songs of the camps under Mr. Archer's direction.

At the business meeting, which followed these addresses, Vice-President Teresa Finn presided. The chairman of the nominating committee, Mr. W. B. Kinnear, presented the following report:

President—Teresa Finn, St. Louis, Mo.

Vice-President—Otto Miessner, Milwaukee, Wis.

Secretary—Philip C. Hayden, Keokuk, Iowa.

Mr. Hayden moved that the report of the committee be amended by substituting the name of Mr. W. B. Kinnear for that of Mr. Hayden as secretary. The motion was adopted, and the officers named declared elected.

On motion the meeting adjourned.

PHILIP C. HAYDEN, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

THE ESSENTIAL FACTOR IN MUSICAL EDUCATION

WILL EARHART, PITTSBURGH, PA.

We come before the world today with large claims for music. The results obtained are not always, however, commensurate with our claims. Is the reason to be found in music itself or in our conception and treatment of music? I believe that it is the latter. Too much of our endeavor along musical lines is vitiated by imperfect conceptions of what music is and what its function is. Assuming that music has uplifting and redeeming power for the souls of men, to what element or factor does it owe that power?

Many answers to this question, most of them carelessly made, have been given. Music has been said to knit up the raveled sleeve of care, expand the lungs, have therapeutic value in nervous and cerebral diseases, socialize the masses, develop patriotism, inspire courage, sustain the physical strength in prolonged endeavor, stimulate the minds of public-school children in their efforts at arithmetic and geography, restore discipline, comfort the wounded heart, inspire affection in the opposite sex, and energize the individual in the activities of life thru stimulation of his emotions. That music has all these results in some measure is probably true; yet, even if true, it is comparatively unimportant. Precisely the highest value which music can claim is not mentioned in this list, and it is to plead for this highest, so seldom striven for, so little seen, that I speak.

Never before has the world lived so much and so eagerly, even feverishly. We stimulate life's activities to the farthest limit; we strain to catch the faintest hint of meaning from its humblest circumstances. In this stress of life, emotion has in some measure been crowded out; and that measure which remained has been almost entirely such as is closely connected with the incidents of life. Art, following as always the adventures of man's soul, good or ill, has shaped herself into conformity; and the function that has fallen to her has been to express our emotional reactions to the specific circumstances into which life carries us.

It is curious, but a fact nevertheless, that man has a range of mood and emotion that lies quite outside of feelings stimulated by life's incidents. In these moods are found his aspirations, his visions, his purest and highest exaltations. The moods born out of experience of life are sharp, bitter, and exciting; the moods born out of this other range bring pleasure rather than excitement, and an uplift of spirit that, while it lacks the snug comfort of worldly sentiment, has infinite regenerative power for the soul of man.

This other world of feeling is, in one word, the realm of the aesthetic. The two are almost inextricably interwoven; but let us try to distinguish the aesthetic and define its character.

It is a noteworthy fact, as William Morris points out, that there has never been a savage so low that some vague idealistic promptings were not present to him. Not even an earthen cooking-pot could he make without endeavoring, beyond the demands of utility, to give it some grace of shape, some charm of color, some touch of ornamental design which revealed his obscure impulse toward idealistic ends. This impulse is quite beyond and above any worldly taint.

My objection to emotion, which doubtless all my hearers are making ready to defend, is that *of itself* it intensifies or energizes life but does not necessarily uplift it. I wish to emphasize that qualification, "of itself." Important considerations depend upon it.

If music is to express emotion alone, then the beginning and end of music are the shout, the sigh, the moan. The cry of the Walküre or Alberich's cry would be supreme ideals of musical expression. We must shout Hail! to the music drama and turn a disapproving back to the fugue and the classical symphony if we embrace this theory. It is precisely this that Wagner did. Fortunately for the world he was not too consistent. He could not construct a whole score of a succession of emotional cries. As a consequence we have those treasures of composition, extended, intricate, and glowing, which, tho Wagner contended that they should never be heard apart from the drama, because of their descriptive quality, still charm us because they stand alone as music. It is so with all music; it must be interesting and beautiful as music, or else all the "explanatory" notes in the world will not persuade us to endure it.

"But," the hearer will say, "music does express emotion." It does; but why limit it to that? So does language that is not formal, so do bodily pose, gesture, facial expression. We cannot move thru emotional scenes without expressing emotion in some of these ways; yet they are not art. Clive Bell, in his book *Art*, puts the matter in a nutshell when he says: "To caper and shout is to express oneself, yet is it comfortless, but introduce the idea of formality, and in dance and song you may find satisfying delight. Form is the talisman."

Thus it happened that the savage exprest his feelings in tone by shouts and formless and inchoate cries; but at the same time his ear was charmed

with the twang of a bowstring, the sound of the wind passing over reeds; and he made himself stringed instruments and flutes and began to form successions of tones into rude patterns. His progress in this direction is perhaps best described by Parry in his *Evolution of the Art of Music*. It continued to the point of the first movement of a "Fifth Symphony" by Beethoven, or a "Fugue in G-Minor" by Bach.

This creation of pure form, of pure beauty, is one of the most unselfish things a man can accomplish. It lifts him above the sharp, clamoring emotions that spring out of the dramatic clash of incident, into a world of pure vision and desire. When shall we learn this? When shall we understand that art has primarily to do with beauty, not with worldly significance? It is the despair of the painter as it is of the musician that the public looks only for a story of life in his work and passes unheeding those elements which make it a work of art.

Our error probably lies in the fact that the two elements, worldly significance and ideal beauty, are curiously blended; and being saturated with life we interpret the art work in terms of worldly experience alone. Yet, all unconsciously, it is beauty—formal beauty—which moves us, not the literal emotion. If this were not true, the cry and the moan, I repeat, would be the beginning and the end of music, and Alberich's hoarse shout would satisfy us more than the *Tristan* prelude or a Beethoven symphony.

A child lives, far more than an adult, in a world of pagan simplicity and directness. Light and shade, form, color, and sound come to him as direct sensation. He needs and seeks no meaning beyond their direct acceptability. Imagine teaching a child that the Monteverde string tremolo means fear, excitement, tragedy. He hears only some violins making interesting rustling sounds. If these ascend and descend in interesting and pleasant undulations and attractive rhythm, if there is contour and balance, he is pleased. If they do not, he soon ceases to attend. In this attitude the child is on the high road to a real appreciation of the beautiful in music. If we took him there and guided him wisely later in observations as to how music attains contour and symmetry, we would eventually have intelligent and discriminating audiences for our classical programs.

What we do is to teach him rote songs. This we must do. There is no other instrumentality than his voice, no other medium than the song. Not content, however, with doing that simply and directly, we call his attention to the words particularly. We teach the words first, we expatiate on the pictures or stories they represent, we even add physical movements and "dramatize" the song often to the extent of making a whole play out of it. Sometimes, it is true, if the lesson period is long enough, a note or two of the music of a rote song that is being "taught" may be heard before the end of the lesson is reacht; but in the main the process tends to teach the child to visualize instead of hear when he sings, and to feel that energy

of delivery takes precedence over refinement and fidelity to the musical facts of the song.

Instead of such a method we might select songs that have real merit as music, albeit of a childlike range; we might play these first, as beautifully as possible, upon the piano; we might then sing them entire, as attractively as we could, so that the song might come to the child, as it should, in the form of an artistic whole. We could then sing a phrase at a time; and all the while we could give him beauty of tone and lead him to strive, in his turn, for such beauty. If we did this I need not point out, I trust, that we would be resting upon a belief or assumption that music is beauty of tone and tonal design; that it is an art of impression as well as of expression; that the ear must be cultivated as well as the emotional energy of the singer developt; and that feelings of the highest type are not aroused by the clang of circumstances but rather by endeavor toward the ideal.

Our blindness to the supreme importance of the aesthetic element in music is shown in numerous other ways. There is a tendency to choose songs of intense realistic character and sing them in an excessively declamatory style. In countless schools there is an obsession with voice that is most unfortunate. The supervisor of music is styled—let us hope unjustly! —the "teacher of vocal music." Children in such schools who are studying Mozart or perhaps even Beethoven outside of school are rated in school according to their response on songs that hold far less value than their piano music; and their puzzled condition because of the difference in character between their music in and out of the school is almost tragic. A boy who plays the violin beautifully, but who has no impulse to express himself in song, is likely to sit neglected thru the daily music lesson, dimly conscious of power of another kind, which outside of school is rated as musical power, but which in school seems to be held in small account. The possibility of developing a high grade of musical inspiration and accomplishment thru instrumental combinations or small orchestras is neglected. Because freedom and fervor of response are valued above broad musical development, unison singing is perpetuated in undue measure upward thru the seventh and even the eighth grade. As a result the pupils are weakened musically, miss the pure enjoyment of the tonal richness and complexity of parts, and are far less intelligent than they should be about their voices, especially with regard to their range and classification in relation to the bass and treble clefs.

Outside the school we are engrost now with music as a social agency. I welcome the advent of community music; but we must realize that community music does not mean some inferior brand of music too common to hold any interest for *us* but good enough to exert some beneficent power upon the proletariat. It rather means the great and noble music of the ages which, by our ardor, our power as musical prophets and interpreters of

the musical gospel, we must restore in all its beauty to the heart of man, from which it came.

Perhaps the grossest error that is made by those who are groping toward some hoped-for regeneration thru music is that which manifests itself in certain forms of effort toward so-called musical appreciation. Mechanical music is responsible for a large stimulation of this kind of effort. Countless persons are reading the stories of operas, learning the names of compositions, composers, singers, players, and conductors, with little more result than to enable them to enter into a drawing-room conversation with less likelihood of embarrassment. My great fear is, however, that this musical sophistication will be taken up by teachers of music in public schools and imposed upon children. I can think of nothing more deplorable than that children, with their frank and open receptivity to the aesthetic product itself, their unscarred background of wordly experience, their disregard of artificial social demands, should spend their time conning the unsavory story of some opera, or learning irrelevant biographical and historical facts, when they might be singing with pure joy some song in which a beauty untroubled of earth is revealed.

The essential factor then in musical education is the aesthetic. Without any particular attention from us it is working all such regenerative wonders as are accomplisht at all thru music. We can take measures to develop subconscious and, at a later date, conscious appreciation of it, and we should do this. At least we should not constantly ignore and deny the one element that is essential in all art by always calling the attention of pupils and the whole world to phases of musical appeal that are not distinctively musical, that are of minor and incidental importance, and that at best are characteristic of only one class of musical composition.

IN WHAT DIRECTION IS PUBLIC MUSIC EDUCATION TENDING?

OSBOURNE MC CONATHY, NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY, EVANSTON, ILL.

It was Walt Whitman who said, "I see America go singing to her destiny." Could that grand old poet open his eyes today, how gloriously would he see his prophecy fulfilled. For today America, as one great united people, has gone forth to battle for the freedom of the world, and her armies are singing as they train, singing as they march, singing as they fight. Let us not mistake the purpose of this use of music in the building of our marvelous war machine. The busy men who have performed this modern miracle of organization have not included music in their plans merely as a pleasant pastime for our boys. In these stern days there is no time for anything but absolute necessities. Our leaders have learned that the needs of the spirit are as fundamental as the needs of the body, and that in min-

istering to the spiritual uplifting of our men music has as fundamental a place in our Army's organization as have those things which contribute to its physical upbuilding.

It is not in our Army alone that music contributes to our spiritual growth. All over our country, wherever our people gather, we are learning to voice our patriotism in song. "Community singing," as it is called, is rapidly becoming an establisht institution. We must not imagine, however, that the vital value of music is in any degree restricted to war times. Its usefulness is every whit as real in times of peace.

There seems to be no doubt that in the years to come music is destined to play an increasingly important part in the lives of the people of our country. It is well, therefore, that those educators on whom must fall much of the responsibility for directing our musical development should carefully consider the problems before them. Music education in the days to come will be quite a different thing from what it was in the haphazard times that are past. Remarkable changes are taking place in the attitude of our people toward music, and these changes of attitude are reflected in the musical training of our young people in our schools and colleges, in musical institutions, and to some extent in the studios of private music teachers.

Let us consider some of these tendencies which seem particularly significant, especially some that are noticeable in our public grade schools and high schools. One of the most interesting movements in public-school music is that which involves the use of musical instruments. I refer to school orchestras, bands, violin classes, lessons on various instruments of the orchestra and band, credit in school for the study of outside music, free piano lessons in school, and the use of schoolrooms for private studio purposes by teachers of public-school music. The school orchestra, of course, is not a new thing, neither is the school band. In the last few years, however, these school activities have multiplied greatly in number and have been placed on a basis of school credit under competent instructors. In this way the movement has taken a form and occupies a place in school life such as was not dreamed of even a decade ago. In many cities of our country the best of instruction on all the instruments of the orchestra is given to the young pupils. In most instances this instrumental instruction is free, and in no small number of places the instruments themselves are provided without expense to the students.

Violin classes are becoming a rather commonly establisht feature in many of our high schools and are even more common in connection with the grade-school work. The same practice is growing with regard to piano instruction. Teachers are studying the processes of group instruction on the piano and other instruments and are making possible not only better instruction but instruction at greatly reduced expense. The number of schools which grant credit for work in piano or other instruments done

under outside teachers is large. The movement as a whole plainly shows the higher evaluation of instrumental music as an educational subject and presages the time when all instrumental study may be accepted as a part of regular school activity.

Another important development in school music that has been conspicuous in recent years is work in what is called "music appreciation" or "lessons in listening to music." It is well understood that only a limited number of people can ever expect to be real artists in performance, and that by far the larger number of people may expect to enjoy their contact with music thru listening to it. The art of listening to music may be cultivated just as truly as the art of performing music. To this end systematized courses of study in listening to music are now in operation in many cities of our country, beginning with the first grade and extending thru the high school.

Another important aspect of the newer attitude toward music is a recognition of the subject as a vocational study. Our schools are beginning to recognize the fact that a student who expects to become a musician has as much right for preparation in his vocation as has a student who expects to become a lawyer, a doctor, an engineer, a chemist, or a clerk. To this end well-organized courses of music are being introduced in our schools, preparing directly for professional music schools, and our children, at public expense and with high-school and grade-school credit, are being trained for their future profession of music.

Quite recently another step has been inaugurated in some of our schools, looking to a type of music education fitted to the various individual capacities of the different children. Some children are well fitted by nature to study the piano or some certain other musical instrument. The school is endeavoring to discover this fact and see that such children are given the opportunity to pursue that line of study for which nature has fitted them. Other children may be so lacking in musical endowment that it is unwise to offer them any music instruction other than help in listening to music. Piano lessons would be a waste, and even singing is serviceable only as it fits them to know more about music, to know that their power of enjoyment in listening to music may be increast. By far the largest number of children will be those who, without talent of a really superior order, nevertheless have ability enough to warrant the study of an instrument or of singing with a view to such enjoyment as a trained amateur would secure. In such cases the school will provide adequate instruction and opportunity for these children to be trained so that they may make the most of the capacities which nature has given them. The coming music education will train the individual child in those lines of musical endeavor which his individual capacities warrant, and this training will be at public expense.

DEPARTMENT OF CHILD HYGIENE

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—Dr. E. A. Peterson, head, Department of School Hygiene .....Cleveland, Ohio
Vice-President—Dr. Arthur Holmes, dean of faculties .....State College, Pa.
Secretary—Mary E. Lent, Public Health Nursing Association.....New York, N.Y.

The Department of Child Hygiene of the National Education Association met in Pittsburgh on July 3, 1918, with Dr. E. A. Peterson in the chair. The following program was presented:

Twenty-fifth Anniversary of the Founding of this Department

Honoring Dr. G. Stanley Hall, the First President

FIRST SESSION—Wednesday Forenoon, July 3, 1918

"What Teachers Ought to Know about the Physical Growth of Children"—Dr. John W. Tyler, Amherst College, Amherst, Mass.

"The Mental Development of Children"—Dr. G. W. A. Luckey, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebr.

"Mental Hygiene"—Dr. W. H. Burnham, Clark University, Worcester, Mass.

SECOND SESSION—Wednesday Afternoon, July 3, 1918

"A General Survey of Child-Study"—Dr. G. Stanley Hall, president, Clark University, Worcester, Mass.

"Children's Sense of Time"—Earl Barnes, Philadelphia, Pa.

After the morning session Dr. Hall discust the papers read.

The president appointed a nominating committee composed of G. E. Jones, Pittsburgh; E. A. Kirkpatrick, Fitchburg; Netta Ferris, Cleveland. This committee reported at the close of the afternoon session and nominated for next year's officers the following:

President—Dr. Louis Terman, Leland Stanford Junior University, Palo Alto, Calif.

Vice-President—Dean W. G. Chambers, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Secretary—Alma Binzell, Minneapolis, Minn.

The foregoing officers were unanimously elected and the meeting adjourned.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

WHAT TEACHERS OUGHT TO KNOW ABOUT THE PHYSICAL GROWTH OF CHILDREN

DR. JOHN M. TYLER, AMHERST COLLEGE, AMHERST, MASS.

The first fact which teachers should know and recognize is that physical growth is the chief business of childhood and youth. The stunted body will dwarf the mind, and the incompletely grown and developt organ is always

a seat of weakness and an open door of entrance to disease. Growth must precede development.

The teacher should recognize the fact that all parts of the body do not develop with equal rapidity at the same time. During infancy the vegetative vital organs are growing and developing very rapidly. Then the heavy muscles of trunk and legs take their turn. Children romp, run, and tussle like kittens. The use of these heavy muscles stimulates the growth of the vital organs and of a steady and tough nervous system. The sense organs also are maturing rapidly. The child is inquisitive, eager to see and feel and handle everything about it, and wishes to hear everything that is said. The centers of perception in the brain are developing fast.

We can thwart nature for a time by our prejudices and invincible ignorance, but later she will exact the last farthing of a heavy penalty. Almost no child can do logical thinking before it is eleven years old. Very few of us exercise them after that period, except briefly under the spur of pain or necessity. A very little exercise of these nascent, highest powers is all that the child requires. Why compel children to thumb listlessly the leaves of their books and spoil all their future habits of study, not to mention the temper of their teachers, when if three-fourths of their time were spent in the open air they would store up health and vitality of body and mind and a longer and more useful body of knowledge?

The tenth year of the girl and the eleventh of the boy are years of minimum growth followed by two or three years of rapid increase in height, mainly in the legs, and of slight gain in girths. The child looks lank and as if it had been violently stretcht. The trunk and the vital organs are now too small for the legs and arms. In the boy these proportions change for the better at fourteen and again at sixteen. In the girl the periods of improvement are far less markt and distinct. This is the period of pubertal metamorphosis, hurried and strong in the girl, less noticeable in the boy.

It is a period of very low death-rate but of much physical disorder. Loss of appetite, constipation, headaches, nervousness, anemia, pallor, and general lassitude or weakness are very common. Probably not one-half of our girls could enter high school with a clean bill of health after a moderately strict physical examination. Now tuberculosis of the lungs, which is responsible for one-third of all deaths between the ages of fifteen and twenty-four, is likely to gain a foothold and intrench itself in her system. Most of these disorders are avoidable and should be greatly decreast or mitigated. A bit of mercy or even a blind side will be a good quality in the teacher, for bright girls of this age are liable to periods of dulness or stupidity, when perfect recitations are not to be expected.

The period after sixteen or seventeen in both boy and girl should be one of vigorous health and overflowing vitality. Care and attention to physical health should not be relaxt during the first year in the high school. During the later years the chief danger seems to lie in late hours and too much social

excitement, altho a reasonable amount of social pleasure and training is most desirable. The old Greek motto of due proportion, "Too much of nothing," applies here as everywhere else.

The group games, with their team play, loyalty to their side and leader, and obedience to discipline for the honor of class or school, are an excellent training in civic virtues. The boy is learning to play the game of life. "Waterloo was won at Rugby." But all pupils, especially the retiring, unathletic, studious, and conscientious boys—for some boys have a conscience—should share in this exercise.

Every period is in a sense prophetic. Childhood stores up for puberty, and puberty prepares for adolescence. Adolescence furnishes the impetus of adult life. The instincts, cravings, and interests of every period furnish the best guide and suggestions as to form, method, and content of training and instruction. Is not this perhaps the soul and essence of the teaching of the Master whom we all delight to honor today? Every suppression of natural and normal instincts and cravings, every failure to satisfy them, leads to arrest of development or to malformation. It is his glory that this thought has become a truism of education, it is so obvious that we can no longer remember or imagine how strange his doctrine sounded when first announst to us.

Industrial and economic training has become an important part of the curriculum of our colleges and high schools, and this is excellent. Every business man recognizes the value of our system and approves it. I have used the word "value." I ask one of my students what determines the value of any object. He answers glibly, "What I can get in exchange for it." What then is the value of friendship, virtue, honor, loyalty, and of everything which cannot be bought or sold, but which makes life worth living? Are we training our pupils to *live* or to get a living? Our boys and girls are emphatically intent today on a life which shall include but go far beyond getting a living; and they are quite right. Is our system of education fast becoming frankly materialistic? If so, we would do well to change it at once.

Do you say sadly, Can virtue be taught? Perhaps or probably not. But it can be imparted by that infection which streams from living, dynamic men and women whose touch and laying on of hands admits the pupil to the "apostolic succession of great souls, the only people in the world who see anything as it is and understand it." This infecting, however, is the life of education, as you know well. Are we training our teachers to live freely and largely, or to devote their best energies to the soul study of some dead and deadening system of soul-destroying pedagogics? Do you prefer in your teachers vitality or docility? They do not always go together.

Church and school are being called upon today to give an account of their stewardship. Men are asking the impossible of religion and the

church today; tomorrow they will demand the impossible from the school. If we are growing and living, what was impossible a year or a generation ago is possible today, if we are alive to our opportunities. Changes are rapid and radical. Men are ready to submit to discipline, face hardship, bear burdens, and make more sacrifices as almost never before. They are throwing aside old systems, methods, and habits. They are ready and eager to be led into something higher and better than they have yet attained. Who will lead in this forward march, if not the students of childhood and youth?

THE MENTAL DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN

DR. G. W. A. LUCKEY, DEAN, GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA, LINCOLN, NEBR.

The deeper and richer our study of this subject becomes, the more we become convinst that the essence of life and the laws of growth are the same in plant, animal, and man. The common elements in all life are so numerous and so convincing that only the ignorant or mentally perverse need fail to see the relation and catch the spirit of the unity of life.

Man begins the journey of life, as do the plants or other animals, with a single cell. By adult life the single cell of the beginning has multiplied to represent more than four hundred billion cells, clustered into groups and differentiated into organisms, each with its special function and work to perform. Any disturbance of a single organ may be sufficient to throw the whole machinery out of gear.

The individual of today represents the accumulated experiences of countless generations. At the bottom of the push for greater and better life is the will to live. Every cell or organism, whether acting alone or in group, manifests this particular individual will to live; when acting in group, it takes on a new function without surrendering the old, i.e., the will to live as a member of the special group. This is the essence of all later development, whether physical or psychical, and probably represents the biological root of individualism and socialism, a dualism in all that cannot be changed without the destruction of life itself.

In this growth and living over the history of the past the individual does so on many different levels. There are three in particular, found in childhood and again repeated in adolescence, to which I desire to call your attention. From birth to the age of twenty, or possibly twenty-five, the individual passes thru two important life-cycles of growth, each containing three distinct stages or levels of growth. The first, from birth to two or possibly three, is the emotional level, when the feelings are dominant. The child is now a dermal animal. The epithelial tissue, which includes not only the covering of the body but also the alimentary canal, the lungs, nervous

system, etc., is making its greatest growth, and since it contains all the sensitive end-organs it is easy to see why the feelings are now storing up a rich harvest for future use.

The second, from three to seven or eight, is the volitional level, when will is dominant. The child is now a motor animal. The muscles, especially the large fundamental muscles, are passing thru their most rapid growth and require the exercise that makes of the child a dramatic or doing animal.

The third, from eight to twelve or fourteen, is the intellectual level, when intelligence begins to get control and is dominant. The child is now a discriminating animal. The finer muscles are developing and demanding exercise or use. Skill of movement now takes the place of the awkwardness of former years and lays the foundation of the formal side of education essential in later years.

The second cycle is known as the cycle of adolescence. It repeats in a similar order the same three levels or stages of development. A new birth occurs, the entire physical growth begins anew. The motive is sex hunger, procreation, and parental instincts. Socialism and altruism become necessary concomitants of future existence and tend to increase the individual love of life and interest in nature.

The difference in the rate of development now between the boy and the girl makes it necessary in our scheme to separate them. Hence I shall proceed with the boy in mind. From fourteen to sixteen the dominant growth changes seem to be dermal, affecting the epithelial tissue and producing innumerable new feelings and emotional desires. This is known as the adolescence period *par excellence* in gathering, testing, trying out, and storing away new experiences, laying the foundation for later versatility and strength.

From sixteen to eighteen (the definiteness of these statements should not indicate that there are not many overlappings) is the second period of most rapid growth of the large fundamental muscles, when the will and the desire to do are again dominant. This is the time for general training and education. The boy now delights in rivalry and feats of strength. If he is not handled right he may leave school before his time to enter the dynamic world where he can do and dare. Woe to the insipid teacher in this stage and the next, if later generations must suffer for the want of a man. Today, as never before, the world needs men, truly educated men; men of clear vision and consecrated will; men who believe in God and love his children; men who will not hesitate nor falter where truth points the way.

From eighteen to twenty or twenty-five is the period of the second rapid development of the finer or accessory muscles. This is the period *par excellence* for specialization in education, the selecting of a profession or trade and the perfecting of ability and worth in it; for seeing, appreciating, and promulgating the finer things of life.

As the individual passes thru his ontogeny by means of special steps or levels, so he lives over and develops his racial history on definite strata or special levels, three of which must have held his forbears fixt for ages. If we now take a sweeping view of racial history and experience we note that besides the dualism resulting from the interaction of the physical and psychical there is the well-known trinity of the psyche emotion, volition, and intelligence. Now if we consider the larger period of human development, when the feelings and emotions are dominant and body growth is the principal function, I think we can safely say that it covers the first twenty to twenty-five years of life. Barring the stress and strain and the many struggles of altruism that appear, it is the period of selfish individualism, the perfecting of the body, and of being stimulated thru the fundamental feelings and emotions. It is a period of body-building, egoism, and self-preparation. The chief motive is physical hunger, including the instinct of self-preservation.

From the early twenties to forty-five or fifty the whole purpose and nature of life change. It is now actuated by sex hunger, procreation, parenthood, and the protection and care of the young. As the former life centered in the immediate interest of the individual, the development of a strong body and an energetic mind, the present life centers around the needs and immediate interests of offspring. It is to a degree social and altruistic. In a broad sense it is the volitional period of life *par excellence*, when man, for the sake of offspring and his immediate group, executes the earlier fundamental functions of the world's work.

From fifty to seventy-five or eighty, as life is now constituted, is another vitally important period to every normal individual. It is the period of intelligence *par excellence*, when the individual who has lived in harmony with nature's plan is free and ready to render his best service to humanity. The individual who has lived wisely and past normally through the other two stages is now ready to enter efficiently and religiously upon his highest life's work. The fundamental motive now is the hunger for truth, the desire to know the true purpose of life, and the will to render the greatest service to mankind.

One fact of human development I should like to leave with you with such burning clearness that you can never forget it. The book of nature from which I have been sketching is written, thru nervous complexes, impulses, traits, and instincts, indelibly in the soul of every individual. The least stimulation of these latent elements, when nascent and ripe, will set them off. When nature becomes to you a mirror, look in, behold yourself, and see God. Why any man who by controlling his own complexes and working out his own salvation might become great should desire to force his thought and methods of thinking upon another, thus preventing the other from reaching his highest goal, is an enigma hard to understand.

Teachers should avoid it and never give for truth what is not truth. Education should make men free and not slaves.

Are you intelligent and clean? Are you blest with a real hunger for truth? Have you been a faithful student of child life? Do you *really love children? All children?* You are saved; go forth and save others.

MENTAL HYGIENE

DR. WILLIAM H. BURNHAM, CLARK UNIVERSITY, WORCESTER, MASS.

The war has greatly increast the scope of mental hygiene. And on the other hand mental hygiene has made to the war a contribution of vast importance and unprecedented character in its examination of recruited officers and men for the detection of nervous and mental disorder, in the reeducation of disabled soldiers, and in its aid to the morale of the army. This last is distinctly the aim of mental hygiene; for the conditions of morale and of mental health are practically the same.

1. Especially the study of nervous disorders in the war has made great contribution to mental hygiene. It appears that shell shock (not surgical shock) is similar to certain mental troubles, hysteria and the like, with which every alienist is familiar, and that conditions of fatigue, anxiety, and strain are the predisposing factors making a person liable to such disorder.

And again the effect of war upon children suggests the need of sound mental hygiene. One of the saddest reports of the Thirty Years' War was that the children were no longer seen playing in the streets of the German cities; and in some localities in the present war it has been said that the children have forgotten how to smile.

It may be said perhaps that the war has put an emphasis upon mental hygiene that it never had before.

2. Physiological studies both before and during the war have placed mental hygiene upon a solid scientific basis. What occurs in the brain when the mind thinks? was the problem attackt long ago by the great Italian physiologist Mosso. And a long series of investigations since has shown definite physiological changes correlated with mental work, changes in the distribution of the blood, an increast liberation of heat, and increast metabolism. The simplest test of these changes is the increast pulse-rate that accompanies attention.

Among the most important of the physiological investigations are the studies of the glands with internal secretion—the thyroid, the thymus, the pituitary, etc. Altho the function of these glands was not discovered until recent years, a vast literature on the subject has been produced.

These modern studies, especially those by Cannon and Crile, have shown not only that normal growth and development depend upon the proper

functioning of these glands, and that the various forms of feeble-mindedness, cretinism, myxoedema, and the like, are caused by defect in one or more of them, but that their normal functioning is significant for our life of feeling and action.

3. Recent studies in psychiatry have also greatly broadened the field of mental hygiene. They have shown the possibility of preventing many forms of mental disorder, especially cases on the border line between the normal and the defective, cases of the depressive type, the various anxiety neuroses, and even some cases of dementia praecox, where suitable environment and suitable training can be provided. They have shown that in many cases the best means of cure is some form of reeducation involving the development of wholesome interests and regular habits of attention and orderly association.

4. Psychology in recent years has made many important contributions to mental hygiene. Among the most noteworthy of these are the results of the Würzburg school in Germany and of Dr. Baird and other followers in this country. These investigations have shown that deeper than the life of perception and ideas are the mental tendencies, the set of the mind, the mental attitudes, and the like.

These attitudes are determined in the schools by the tasks set for the pupils, by the directions given by the teacher, by the presence and behavior of the other children, and by the whole environment of the pupils. Many other investigations, especially in experimental psychology, have widened the scope of mental hygiene. I can speak of only one of these.

5. The most important contribution to mental hygiene providing a method of unlimited application is probably the modern study of the conditioned reflex by the Russian school of Pavlov and the adaptation of this to the study of children by Krasnogorski and by Drs. Mateer and Watson in this country.

Pavlov has developt an elaborate technique for the study of this subject and has shown that the sensation from any receptor organ—sight, hearing, the dermal senses, etc.—may be made a conditioned stimulus by repeated association. Krasnogorski in Russia, Dr. Mateer at Clark University, and Dr. Watson at Johns Hopkins University, have shown that motor-conditioned reflexes can be developt in children, and that the ability to form such reflexes is correlated with the development of the mind and brain.

All this is of great importance to education and hygiene, for it furnishes an objective method for studying the development of the brain cortex on the one hand and the growth of habit in the individual child on the other hand. All training in animals and children consists largely in the acquisition of conditioned reflexes.

We know relatively little about the conditioned reflexes developt by our ordinary school and home environment; but the studies made show the

vast number of them acquired by a child during the period of school life, groups of habits and associations probably for every teacher and companion, and the importance of these for the mental health of the individual.

If it appears that this broad view of mental hygiene makes it overlap the field of morals and social hygiene, it is true enough that the boundaries are indefinite, and that mental hygiene does have to do with anything which concerns the health and sanity of society as well as of individuals. In the present crisis new problems of the utmost gravity confront us; and these problems, significant for the welfare of society, are matters of vital concern to mental hygiene also.

In any good movement in education there lurks the danger of exaggeration and the development of an extreme that will be the ruin of all the good attained by it.

During the last two years a great moral and educational development has occurred in this country, transforming our somnolent pacificism and selfish individualism into an active, ardent, and united patriotism and into ideals of cooperation, unity, and national and even international service. Men who seldom thought of anybody but themselves and their immediate companions are now sacrificing for others. Young men who perhaps seemed worthless are now apparently saved by the training of the camp. Everybody, in fact, is receiving a training of great value from the war; but care should be taken even here to avoid an overdevelopment and the evils inevitably connected with this.

After a great war there is always an opportunity for education, especially for the defeated nation. In the present war we are bound to be victorious; and after the war will come a time, not only of opportunity, but of great danger in educational matters. The great task for the schools will be to seize the opportunity and to avoid the danger.

A few things are pretty certain. It is certain that during the next ten years we shall have either war or peace. If we have continued war, a great military class must be maintained. If, on the other hand, we soon have peace, we can never relapse into our former state of unpreparedness. We must at least be ready to enforce peace; and military training to some extent is likely to be demanded. In either case there is bound to be a large class devoted for a time to military affairs; interest in military affairs is bound to be developt, and military training is likely to appear necessary.

An educational problem already pressing for solution is the question whether we shall have military training and instruction in the high schools of this country. The strong feeling of many educators and physical trainers is that military training is not the best form of education for students in the high school, and that it is not in harmony with the educational aims of the public schools. If, however, this contention is to be satisfactorily maintained it is necessary that the high schools should provide that moral discipline and that training in the sound principles of mental hygiene and

morale that give the preparation necessary for the occupations of peace as well as of war.

Before military training certain habits and attitudes should be developt. A great part of military training today is training in physical education, hygiene, obedience, cooperation, sacrifice of individual interest for the sake of the social group, and in the principles of mental hygiene that make for morale and sanity. We shall never be satisfied again without extended training of this kind. This part of military training should be emphasized. It can and should be given in the public schools. It would be the gravest mistake to leave all this to be provided after school life merely in special military training.

In a time when the danger of mental disorder is more serious than ever before; when the number needing the help of a sound mental hygiene is greater perhaps than ever before; in the storm and stress of war, when the hearts of men and women at home are breaking, and the morale of the best soldiers at the front is being tested; in a time of numerous fads and cults, when men cry, Lo here, or Lo there, is the kingdom of health, mental hygiene preaches its quiet gospel, based upon scientific fact, and offers the aid of our vastly increast knowledge to those in grievous need of sympathy and aid, a gospel quite as important for children as for adults, quite as helpful for normal children as for the defective.

A GENERAL SURVEY OF CHILD-STUDY

DR. G. STANLEY HALL, PRESIDENT, CLARK UNIVERSITY, WORCESTER, MASS.

[The first part of this address was a sketch of the history of child-study during the twenty-five years which had elapsed since it was given a department in the National Education Association.—EDITOR.]

But I turn from these more familiar fields to indicate also only roughly and inadequately as the most notable of all contributions to paidology those that have come to us from the psychoanalysts. Here we have studies of perhaps twoscore eminent men and women which show how the chief influences that shaped their characters and their careers originated in the infantile years, and added to this we have what has been estimated at nearly twoscore thousand clinical studies that show that it is to these years that we must chiefly look for the sources of all mental and moral abnormalities. It is preeminently thus during the first four years of life that all the fundamental traits of character and disposition or diathesis are formed. These very rarely change after the age of three or four. These are just the years that the adult forgets, but the character of life-interests and the intensity and direction of its momentum are already establisht. The infantile in us is the unconscious, and the unconscious includes most of what we call instincts, feelings, sentiments, emotions, or, in popular language,

the heart, out of which are the issues of life. The studies of childhood in this field thus take us down to deeper strata of human nature than the plummet of any previous psychology has sounded. The child is vastly older than the adult, not only because its traits precede those of adulthood, which is a far later acquisition, but because the mainspring of every disturbance of sanity or virtue is also found in this first quadrennium of life. Moreover, all thru life we live on a very slippery, genetic scale and easily slide back or relapse into infantile states if fatigue, disappointment, or disease befalls us. All the delusions of all insanities, all our dreams, are made on the same pattern as our habitual dream types, and these are the warp and woof out of which the day dreams, reveries, and wishes of childhood, which fancy can so often almost make come true, are made.

Thus the theoretical and the practical in this new line of paidology are closely knit together, and we have here at last found a number of fundamental mechanisms which go distinctly beyond the old doctrine of the four temperaments, a field where psychology had made almost no progress all the way from Hippocrates to Wundt. I have time today to glance only briefly at a very few of these traits:

1. Active and passive (Nietzsche, Freud, Jung), which does not coincide with masculine and feminine. Actives are more prone to anger, passives to fear; the former do; the latter learn or adapt. In their pathological extremes the actives may be cruel and the passives crave to suffer.

2. Another fundamental type of character laid down in the first three or four years of life is erethism. Some have markt power, that others lack, to draw on their reserves in emergencies and exigencies. Its physical phenomenon is second breath. It is the same diathesis that often brings the exaltation that poets call the afflatus of the muse versus the plodder. Those who have it can tap reservoirs of phyletic energy.

3. Somewhat related is the other distinction between the egoists and the altruists, those who are selfish and prone to hyperindividuation versus those in whom genesis and self-sacrifice culminate. One type wants to do, be, get everything, regardless of others and perhaps of means. The other type is inclined to self-abnegation. It loves to serve, to die for others or causes greater than itself. The extreme types are set forth in Christianity as Christ and Satan.

4. The attitude toward authority is now establisht. The father is the child's first object of reverence, and it is the father whom he would imitate. He loves but also fears him. He has to submit to his will, perhaps to his chastisement, so love and respect alternate with resentment, obedience with revolt. Now the father is the modulus on which is fashioned the child's attitude toward great men, the community, state, church, or God himself. So we have, on the one hand, those who develop morbid symptoms at every suggestion of control, constraint, command. They are negativists who respond to any hint of compulsion by protesting their readiness to die for

liberty. They may make incorrigibles, anarchists, or conscientious objectors. But, on the other hand, those of the better type make pioneers and inventors.

5. Compensation is establisht just as, if sight is gone, touch is refined; or if the left hand is withered, as in the case of the Kaiser, the right may be overdevelopt. So we know that Demosthenes stammered, Beethoven was deaf, tall boys are prone to stoop, little men to strut, ugly men and women have a stimulus to compensate by intellectual development as Socrates did; and the young child, because it has always served, may develop a great sense of power with a compensating sense of weakness and smallness. Thus we pad our minds and characters as well as our bodies. Here we have another apparition of the universal push-up, *élan vital*, *libido*, *horme*, or will to live.

6. More difficult than to avoid arrest is the maintenance of psychic unity. The soul is a congeries of very different and often opposite activities, for example, between pleasure and pain, each of which has a mental horizon of its own, as do fear and anger. So there is constant need of synthesis, and degenerate souls split into multiple personalities, so that education has to organize the soul that all its powers may be brought out, brought to bear, and brought together before the ego can sphere itself into individuality. Mature life is nothing but an amplification of these fundamental impulses of the first four years.

Thus I have toucht on only six of the score or two of psychic mechanisms which have been definitized by the new line of psychogenetic study which has made contributions of incalculable value to our knowledge of child-study. Of course there are many themes of child-study, as we see it, which are still unaffected by this new departure, which is exposed to some danger of inferring from the abnormal to the normal. If there were danger at first in this new line of stressing sex too much, now (thanks to the younger generation of analysts led by Adler and Jung) the whole scope of psychoanalysis has been broadened and its method shown to apply to all affective factors, so that it is now best taught and studied without offense and with tremendous gain to mental effectiveness. Nothing could be worse than to psychoanalyze normal children. Still a touch of it needs only insight.

Finally, from no other standpoint has it been so clear that in the study of childhoold lies the key to all our knowledge of human nature. To understand the psychic life of the child is first of all to understand all the deeper springs of activity in adult life, even those that make men and women great or make them criminal or insane, for here human nature is laid bare to its roots. Again, the child is the key to the study of primitive man and savages. Much of the most important literature in the whole field of genetics in recent years has consisted in pointing out the childish traits in savages and the savage traits in children. Even our forbears who dwelt in caves lived their lives, were wise or foolish, good or bad, sound or unsound in soul, according to these rubrics. Indeed, even the higher animals in their funda-

mental instinctive activities can be thus better understood. In this field too are to be found the very best psychological explanations of war, its causes, and the basal impulses that it unleashes. In fine, the more clearly we see that the unconscious or racial factors of the human soul are older, vaster, stronger than the conscious, just to that degree do we realize that the psychology of the future is to be genetic, for the best definition possible of anything in the world today is a plain description of the stages by which it has been evolved. Very many movements have already sprung from the recognition that the soul itself, no less than the body, has been genetically evolved; and for myself I have no doubt that the tendencies that have so broadened and enricht the field of child-study during the last twenty-five years, since it was recognized by this Association, will, at the end of another quarter-century, have far more cause for satisfaction.

CHILDREN'S SENSE OF TIME

EARL BARNES, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

A well-trained sense of time is essential to all efficient living. Without it our activities are chaotic and little is accomplisht. In developt communities, where individuals must cooperate with their fellows, the sense of time is indispensable. Beyond this our modern theories of life, which gather around such words as evolution, genesis, development, and growth, make a well-developt sense of time, capable of reaching out over long periods, the very foundation of rational thinking.

Babies have little or no sense of time, and young children know only "now," "right away," "by and by," "a little while." Later on they understand "today," "yesterday," and "tomorrow." How do they acquire content for such terms as second, minute, hour, day, week, month, year, and century? What can the home and the school do to organize their habits and their thinking on a sound and fairly accurate time basis?

In the past the schools have all emphasized the evils of tardiness. Every child must be in his seat at a fixt hour. Unfortunately promptness in coming to school has been dependent on conditions largely outside the child's control. Superintendent Gregory once made a study of tardiness in the schools of Trenton, N.J., where the records were pretty complete for several years. He found that the percentage of children who came late to school ran thru the same curve year by year. The average by months was:

Month	Percentage	Month	Percentage
September	3.6	February	4.0
October	4.1	March	3.8
November	4.2	April	4.0
December	5.7	May	4.5
January	5.4	June	3.5

Probably the school pressure varied from time to time, but it would be difficult to estimate this. What is evident is that, beginning with September, when the days are still long and home conditions not too difficult, tardiness is at a low point. As the winter approaches, with its shortening days, its dark mornings, increast clothing to look up and put on, and slower locomotion, tardiness increases month by month till January. Then, as the days lengthen and cold decreases, tardiness falls off, until April and May breed "spring fever," which increases it a little until the June examinations push it back to its lowest level. Tardiness follows the sun; it is a cosmic matter with children, as with adults; and education to be effective should reach the parents rather than the children.

The only effort that the schools have made to train children in correct modes of thinking, where time is concerned, has been in connection with history and biography. Even here it has been taken for granted that our system of chronology is a common possession of all intelligent minds, and little has been done to clear up difficulties. The fact is that few adults have any definite sense of the centuries along which life has progrest; and probably half the people in our midst would not be sure whether 1492 is in the fourteenth or the fifteenth century. For events occurring before the year 1 the public mind is almost without content. The matter has been still further confused by the fact that the dates which the children have been required to memorize were badly selected and often unimportant.

It is obvious that in adjusting our adult activities to a schedule of rising, meals, work, social and business engagements, amusements, trains, and going to bed, we are all the slaves of our watches and clocks. No accurate feeling for periods of less than an hour can come to anyone not in contact with time-measuring devices. After sufficient experience our bodies become adjusted to time relations so that combinations of digestive and other vital processes, fatigue, and events past over make us feel the passage of five minutes or an hour, or the arrival of noon or midnight.

How does this mechanism develop in children, and how do they form the habit of thinking intelligently in longer periods of time? It seemed to me that our older method of child-study might yield results in this field, and so I collected one thousand papers written by children from eight to fourteen years old, inclusive, in the Pittsburgh schools.

The teachers were askt to have the children sit with their hands extended before them for forty-five seconds and then state how long it had been. Then they were askt, "What does 1913 mean?" The last question was, "How long has it been since the Civil War?"

These tests were given in 1913. The answers of the boys and girls were so nearly the same that for convenience I have mast them together. This gave me a hundred or more papers of each age, a sufficient number on which to base generalizations.

The first test, sitting with the hands extended for forty-five seconds, gave answers varying from five seconds to fifteen minutes. Those who estimated exactly right were:

Age 8	Age 9	Age 10	Age 11	Age 12	Age 13	Age 14
1%	2%	2%	2%	3%	3%	8%

Of course it is very difficult to estimate forty-five seconds, and we would not expect this to be a strong line.

Other tests I have made bear out the conclusion that children greatly overestimate short periods of time and only slowly come back within reasonable limits. Professor Seashore's studies showed the same condition with adults.

In dealing with the longer periods of time, which should regulate most of our thinking, we are faced with the difficulties of our complex chronology, which begins, nominally, with the birth of Jesus and runs backward and forward. Every history teacher knows what a difficult matter this is. For my purpose I used the test originally workt out by Mary Sheldon Barnes, "What does 1913 mean?"

The younger children, from eight to ten years old, attach no more meaning to the date than is contained in the statement, "It is the name of the year," or, "It tells what year it is." The percentage runs:

Age 8	Age 9	Age 10	Age 11	Age 12	Age 13	Age 14
57%	53%	45%	41%	33%	18%	19%

There is, of course, a group that falls below this level of understanding, most of whom simply feel some time connection with 1913 and make statements that are hard to relate to any organized form of thinking. These papers are, however, few in number, and the majority, even of the youngest children, know that 1913 names the year.

Even at the age of eight some of the children know that 1913 measures the time since Jesus' birth. The percentage having this answer runs:

Age 8	Age 9	Age 10	Age 11	Age 12	Age 13	Age 14
3%	15%	14%	21%	19%	35%	38%

Few children seem to reach this correct understanding directly and at once. Evidently this most important factor in our chronology is taken for granted and is not taught in our schools. Large numbers of children who have come to realize that 1913 measures the time behind us have no starting-point for the series.

A less academic study gathers about the question, "How long has it been since the Civil War?" The correct answer is fifty-two years since the beginning of the Civil War and forty-eight years since its close. The children whose answers fall within these limits are:

Age 8	Age 9	Age 10	Age 11	Age 12	Age 13	Age 14
15%	24%	41%	49%	55%	66%	78%

This is a fairly good and steadily growing line. If we take a larger grouping and include all those whose answers fall between twenty-five years and one hundred years we have:

Age 8	Age 9	Age 10	Age 11	Age 12	Age 13	Age 14
24%	40%	58%	69%	71%	83%	93%

This is a fairly creditable line measuring general information.

Those who give an answer under twenty-five years are obviously possest of slight historical feeling. Those who give an answer over one hundred years are clearly without much sense of time.

From these slight studies it is safe to say that children's sense of time, whether used to regulate life in short periods or to direct thinking in longer periods, is very imperfect. This is what we should expect, but it emphasizes the necessity of having regular exercises at home and in schools in using watches and clocks and in estimating short periods.

It also impresses the need of teaching chronology in history, not by memorizing unimportant dates, but by planning an intelligent time chart and drilling children on twenty or thirty dates distributed across the centuries. These dates should represent important persons or events and the chart would thus give an outline of the past 6000 years, into which events met in reading or in discourse would fit as they now fit into the map forms possest by almost every intelligent person.

DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—Baroness Rose Posse, president, Posse Normal School of Gymnastics.....Boston, Mass.
Vice-President—C. Ward Crampton, director of physical training.....New York, N.Y.
Secretary—E. H. Arnold, director, Normal School of Gymnastics.....New Haven, Conn.

Tuesday Forenoon, July 2, 1918

In the absence of the officers of this department Randall D. Warden, of Newark, was placed in the chair as presiding officer, with Gerhard E. N. Havekotte, of Pittsburgh, as secretary.

After the novel feature of opening the meeting by singing a few patriotic hymns and war songs, conducted by James McIlroy, Jr., Pittsburgh, Pa., the meeting was called by the chairman.

The first paper on the program, entitled "The Strength of a Nation Promoted thru Physical Education," given by W. Fowler Bucke, of Geneseo, N.Y., brought out, thru discussion, the need of a national campaign and the indispensable aid of nurses in this campaign.

All discussions were limited to five minutes.

The second paper was on "Physical Training for Delinquents." This address was given by Olive M. Jones, principal, Probationary School, New York, N.Y. Many good points were mentioned, showing that the author had given a great deal of study to her subject.

The third paper, "The Influence of Physical Education on the Development of the Individual," was given by S. H. Replogle, Pittsburgh, Pa. The statistics in this and the previous paper showed that if more investigations were made, physical training would be given a higher standing.

These were followed by "Effects of Physical Education on School Morale," given by May H. Prentice, Kent, Ohio, and "Physical Education in Rural Schools," by Lawrence S. Hill, Albany, N.Y.

Mr. Warden spoke briefly on his subject, "Creed of Physical Education," to allow time for the business meeting which followed.

A paper on "The Policy of New York State with Regard to Physical Training" was given by James G. Riggs, Oswego, N.Y.

Clara G. Baer, of New Orleans, La., presented a paper entitled "Women and the War," and Helen L. Gregory, Rochester, N.Y., one on "Effective Health Education Thru Public Schools."

Miss Esther Watson, Boston, Mass., presented the following proposals as a basis for discussion and action, which were adopted:

Resolutions adopted by the Department of Physical Education.

Whereas, We, the Department of Physical Education of the National Education Association, realize the war necessities of a higher degree of physical fitness for our future fighters and present home workers and of an ample provision for the physical reeducation of disabled soldiers, be it

Resolved, That we define the fundamental distinction between military training and physical education, namely, that military training is one among a number of vocational occupations, whereas physical education is the upbuilding development and efficient management of the human body and consequently is the foundation for all life-work, physical, mental, and spiritual.

Resolved, That we seek to establish, in connection with governmental educational and medical agencies, scientific research for the betterment of our knowledge of physical reconstruction work and physical standards which will provide and secure the enactment of laws for such discoveries.

Resolved, That we extend to the consideration of superintendents, normal schools, teachers and students of physical education, and all educational institutions the need for greater activity in providing a strong personnel for these new demands of physical education. That we seek to cooperate with all community agencies for health and recreation and suggest for local needs the formation of a community health council, including a representative from the Community Center Association, the Playground and Recreation Association, Scouts and other clubs, the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Knights of Columbus, Young Men's Hebrew Association, the chamber of commerce and commercial amusement places.

Resolved, That play be incorporated in all normal-school courses, with credit toward a degree.

Resolved, That the Department of Physical Education of the National Education Association recommend and urge that boards of public education make physical training a major subject, with at least equal rating with all other school subjects, and that adequate facilities, teachers, playfields, and apparatus be provided.

The whole atmosphere of this session was to meet the great public awakening to the need and value of physical training as disclosed by the war and army draft.

The officers elected for the coming year were:

President—Randall D. Warden, director of physical education, Newark, N.J.

Vice-President—Lawrence L. Hill, director of physical education, Albany, N.Y.

Secretary—Miss Esther Watson, Boston, Mass.

G. E. N. Havekotte,
Acting Secretary

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

THE STRENGTH OF A NATION PROMOTED THRU PHYSICAL EDUCATION

W. FOWLER BUCKE, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND PRACTICE, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, GENESEO, N.Y.

It is preferable to use the term physical education rather than physical training, since the idea is education thru the physical approach, and not merely the training of the nature-muscular mechanism. It will include physical education thru gymnastics and games, educational hygiene and health, and athletics. It will have for its aim to "make children healthful, vigorous, strong, happy, and efficient," or, to be more explicit, to build muscle, to train muscular coordination, to overcome physical defects, especially posture, and to develop traits of character which come thru muscular control.

The second consideration must be the meaning of national strength. It is understood to mean the survival of the nation or state most fit to survive when put to the supreme test. Perhaps in an ideal and coming democracy this means the combination of many factors into an organic

unity. The organic unity making for national strength is one of men and resources, or men in control of resources—the control over industry, communication, chemical and physical forces, etc. In short, the strength of a nation depends upon the character of its citizens in relation to each other and to their territorial domain, and upon their ideals of individual and community life.

Accepting these positions, it must be determined to what extent physical education accomplishes national strength. Neither opinion nor instrument can measure this to the satisfaction of all. That in the evolution of nations it was greatly strest history confirms. The ideals embodied in Achilles and the mythological interpretations of physical power, where ideals and gods are synonymous, are known to all. The reliance of Greece was placed upon her citizens. This dynamic ideal among the Greeks came to develop a physical consciousness that made him ashamed to strip who lackt physical symmetry. It represented an education which was more than half physical. They would have styled it the fundamentals of an education and of national strength.

The support of the city state in Greece is typical of that in Rome. But with the advent of Christianity came a markt change. Pagan civilization did not satisfy, pagan literature was banisht. Physical education was not essential, for a new and spiritual kingdom was the ideal. With the Sermon on the Mount as the law of life and the reign of love as the world-ideal, physical education as a preparation for war must cease.

At the same time and parallel with this doctrine went that of the feudal lords. Their protection rested upon physical education, with reckless courage and daring. Thus the sons of noblemen and gentlefolk should be prepared physically for that which in modern parlance would be styled national defense.

It remained for a statesman, a philosopher, a diplomat, a scientist, and a modern psychologist, all combined in one man, to give to the world in acceptable form a principle that has stood the test of both experiment and opinion. It is that of a sound mind in a sound body. Here the messages of biology, physiology, and psychology meet. With John Locke's contribution the thinking world is satisfied.

Man, both physically and mentally, is the resultant of all racial activities of the centuries. His life is an epitome of the progress of the world, so to speak. We are told that the world in all the centuries has been at peace but 227 years. It is reasonable to expect that whatever of physical education we have has been the result of military training. The fitness of the soldier depends upon the child's being physically fit. One need but compare the two types of training to observe how the military justly carries out the general scheme of physical education. This being true, the program of physical education is the program of military education fitting the premilitary or preprofessional period.

That department of physical education most unconscious, or most truly instinctive, is play. Some delight to call it unlearned behavior. A careful study of the plays of children shows their value as the conserving force of all that is good and valuable for the future, transmitted from the past, and shows how the physical carries over into the mental as mind and soul qualities function. Here are the early and more purely physical activities involving first the fundamental muscles, then the necessary. The progress is into cooperative activities of parts of body. The individualistic nature of games leads by and by to cooperation and leadership, developing finally a sense of superiority, dignity, endurance, and courage, while inspiring confidence and giving real virtue and general virility. With it comes the real, naïve spirit of cooperation, leadership, simplicity of life, and dash so useful to national spirit. From the kindergarten thru elementary and high school the logical work of one who directs is simply to round out, complete, or supplement the spontaneity of child life, that play may be enricht, initiative and inventive genius expanded, reservation converted into devotion, and principles of honesty and fairness fostered. The further purpose is that the play habit may be acquired and carried thruout life. Thus play becomes a real, national asset.

The same natural function of physical adolescence is found in athletics. Perhaps this is true, as someone has observed, because love and war are so closely connected that individual pugnacity is greatly increast at sexual maturity, and a new sense of organization arises, making the team possible.

Here are developt new schools of mental and moral training. There must be conformity to rule of the game, self-subordination or the struggle for an ideal, the sacrifice hit, the unflinching interest in the group, the leveling of all to a spirit of human sympathy and recognition. Here come the sense of honor and the idea to win for the sake of an external end. Dr. Sargent says that athletics affords a wealth of new and profitable topics for discussion and enthusiasm which helps against triviality and mental vacuity, prompts discussion of diet and regimen, gives new standards of honor, supplies motive against all errors and vices that weaken or corrupt the body, and is a vent for reckless courage and respect for deeds.

In addition to these values native or instinctive possibilities provide motivation for health and hygiene involved in corrective and other gymnastic exercises of the more truly conscious sort. Who has not seen the value of these for posture, the right use of the margin, a love for the outdoors, a study of the problems of digestion, the general interpretation of symptoms, and the development of a wholesome optimism? Who can estimate the value of medical inspection and the work of the school nurse? Thru the efforts of Dr. McCurdy and others the public is learning the relation of physical education to the defective body, and how one otherwise a dependent may be made self-supporting. In this respect the director of

physical education parallels the work of the good Samaritan and more, for he not only relieves the unfortunate, as it were, but keeps the thieves out of the narrow passes and makes the country safe.

THE INFLUENCE OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE INDIVIDUAL

S. H. REPLOGLE, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ALLEGHENY COUNTY, PA.

The aims of physical training, says Dr. Sargent, may be included under four general heads: hygienic, educative, recreative, and remedial. That it does improve the health, that it does give the body skill in executing the commands of the mind, and that it is recreative and remedial I think we accept without question. But does physical education produce these qualities and conditions and make them contributory to the ultimate end of all education to a degree sufficient to give it a place of first importance on the daily program of the school?

In spite of all the testimony as to its value as a part of a scheme of education, physical training has had little place in the curriculum or on the program of the school. With reference to it little has been done to make practice harmonize with theory, or to test out theory to determine whether it holds good in practice. About the only attempt at education with physical development as a fundamental basis was that of the ancient Greeks. They emphasized the development of the body for three reasons: (1) the attainment of individual strength and courage as a means of national defense, (2) the establishment of a physical basis for mental development, and (3) the cultivation of the beautiful in form and proportion. Can we conceive of what the world might have gained had their philosophy not been lacking in moral stability?

Is there not reason to believe that the development of physical health, strength, and endurance, out of their true relation to right ideals and true moral purposes, has had something to do with making Germany the powerful, dangerous, brutal, and criminal outlaw that has drencht all Europe in blood and brought all the rest of the world to the defense of justice, mercy, truth, and right?

When we entered the war, far too few of our young men had the properly balanst physical, mental, and moral qualities necessary for immediate service. And now we find ourselves in a frantic effort to qualify a sufficient force to outdistance and defeat the Hun.

It has taken a pretty severe jolt to break the tie that has been binding us to the tradition of the past and to get us out of the feeling that our problem is largely that of informing and reforming the minds of boys and girls and of making them familiar, as far as it is possible to do so, with the

sum of human knowledge as it now exists, but we are seeing the handwriting on the wall and are getting a broader vision of the whole problem of education. The great world-war has revealed to us many shortcomings and neglected opportunities. Perhaps no phase of our national life has felt the test more keenly than the one with which we are concerned, that of education. From the standpoint of moral development we have stood the test very well. And that the intellectual training has been of a superior quality is proved by the fact that those who are accepted prepare for service with almost incredible rapidity, showing a high degree of intelligence and keenness of mind. But when about one-half of those who offer themselves for service to their country must be rejected because of physical imperfections, we ask ourselves whether we have not been neglecting a most important phase of education, whether we have not been weighed in the balance and found wanting from the standpoint of physical education. Who can estimate what would have been the gain to the nation if the physical powers of its boys had been developt, as well as their mental and moral qualities?

A means of definitely measuring the results of our work in all of its phases would doubtlessly bring us to a keener realization of the importance of physical education as a necessary part of the work of the school. The intellectual ability of our boys and girls and the effectiveness of our training in this respect we do measure with a reasonable degree of accuracy, and our work is influenst very greatly by the results of such measurement. But thus far we have concerned ourselves very little about their physical fitness, and we have done very little to find out what progress their bodies are making in keeping pace with their mental development. We take no measure of the effect life in school and outside is having upon them physically. We have been trying to build up a sound mind without first providing for the development of a sound body. As a result, far too many of our young men and women are unable to stand the strain and test of life.

We have begun only in spots to organize, supervise, and teach play. Medical inspection of a superficial type is bringing to notice only the most glaring of physical defects, some of which are remedied by medical attention outside of school, but so far no consistent, systematic, effective work is being done in our schools to remedy physical defects, or to make the knowledge which the children get concerning the laws of health and the care of the body a part of their habits of life, or to promote health, strength, and vigor of the body.

In order that we might have a way of determining, to some extent at least, the physical fitness of our boys and girls in Allegheny County, and to provide them with definite lines of self-training and a motive for such training, we workt out a plan of tests, with standards by which they could be measured and toward which they could train.

Reports from the districts where the tests were given indicated their value beyond our expectation. They were given credit for aiding discipline

and improving the quality of mental work, and for a deeper interest and better spirit in the school.

Number of boys tested		7147			
"	qualifying in running	1504	or about	20	per cent
"	" " jumping	2094	" "	29	" "
"	" " chinning	2938	" "	40	" "
"	" " all three tests	508	" "	7	" "
Number of girls tested		7008			
"	qualifying in running	2713	or about	38	per cent
"	" " throwing	914	" "	13	" "
"	" " balancing	2692	" "	38	" "
"	" " all three tests	212	" "	3	" "

Only 7 per cent of the boys and 3 per cent of the girls were able to qualify in all three of the tests given. Evidently too few are developing physically strong in every respect. As a rule the mentally retarded are also physically weak. A study of the results of the test in relation to retardation helps to prove that there is a close relation between the condition of the body and the efficiency of the mind. It has been demonstrated in other ways that improving the child physically results immediately in improved mentality. Attention to removable defects, such as adenoids, poor eyesight or hearing, or decayed teeth, almost invariably gives the child a new lease of life. Is it not evident that physical training of the right type would help very materially to reduce retardation, and that our boys and girls need exercises selected, varied, and adapted to the end that their bodies may grow symmetrically strong, vigorous, and healthy?

It would seem that the school in its effort to educate must make physical education a part of its daily program. Without school life so ordered can we ever hope to produce efficient men and women?

EFFECTS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION ON SCHOOL MORALE

MAY H. PRENTICE, DIRECTOR OF PHYSICAL TRAINING, KENT STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, KENT, OHIO

The matter of morale, intangible, yet most real, is in all our thoughts at the present time. The relation of this spiritual attitude to the physical is a fascinating consideration.

In one sense physical education is the only education. Not only do we learn to know by doing, but we learn to know, in the ultimate reality, only by doing. Purposeful, joyful action is a mental and spiritual stimulant and tonic quite as much as it is a developer of physique.

We, the people of the schools, who associate five or more hours a day with childhood and youth, have so little felt in friendly sympathy with the throbbing of the eager young hearts that we have waited for the city gymnasium, the swimming-pool, the settlement playground, the Boy

Scouts, and the Camp Fire Girls to demonstrate to us that attenuated intellectuality can never be the mainspring of healthy, hearty, joyous youth.

If the child's impulses are to be transmuted into spiritual values, if thru them he is to be made a creature of a larger life, until his life is rounded into Froebel's three great unities, with himself, with man, with God, then his physical education cannot be left to chance. It must become a serious and large part of his school life.

In the majority of American schools physical education still plays a very small part. Even the ten or fifteen minutes of daily exercises are often crowded out by work considered more important, and the exercises are often perfunctory and poorly adapted to the needs of the children. Adequate gymnasium facilities and ample open-air playgrounds are the exception rather than the rule.

When Americans were mostly country dwellers, even the city child could usually walk from his home in the heart of the city to the fields and woods. Motor control was learned at the spinning-wheel, the churn, the bread-board, and the cheese-vat; at the scythe, the ax, the haymow, in nutting and apple gathering. Sometimes there was a heaviness in the rustic grace, something of the joy of life was often lacking; but always there was for the children and young people a sense of the dignity of labor, of being an integral part of the family and community. Much that was admirable in physical development and social morale came thus.

These are other times. Our children and young boys and girls are a leisure class by legislation, with no occupation but mental culture. More and more what they are and are to become is made the responsibility of the school.

Admitting then that the first duty of the school is to make the child a healthy, happy animal and to furnish him a fitting habitat as such, we find that we cannot, because he is human, do this first thing without doing more. He is an "ideal farming animal," and we are obliged to ponder the service which physical education may render through using this great spiritual instinct.

The health and happiness of the individual require, not only that the proper muscles shall be exercised and each organ given its due share of work, but that his education, intellectual, spiritual, and physical, shall be social instead of solitary; that it shall give opportunity for losing himself and so finding a greater and worthier self in the group, the side, the team, the nation, the humanity, to which he belongs. This sense of belonging is morale. "Except as he is member, citizen," says Mr. Joseph Lee, "the child will lack the chief basis of morality." The relation of morality and morale is like that of honesty and honor.

Step by step the different forms of physical education deepen the belonging feeling. Merely doing things in unison, as in drill, where each is inde-

pendent, yet all are actuated by a common purpose, gives a sense of unity and makes each feel himself a part of the whole. And since the feeling of belonging is fundamental, those features of physical training in which a common end is sought by the group are the most far-reaching from a social point of view. Human life is a cooperative project. "No man liveth to himself alone."

Morale is that *n*th power to which man is raised by his faith in the end sought by the group to which he is bound by a common ideal or purpose. In all the great moments of the world men have thus been lifted out of themselves into a realm in which their powers become those of supermen, and the beginnings of this superhuman power are to be found on the playground. In those forms of sport requiring combination and initiative all the qualities of morale are found. "In team play there are needed," says Dr. Dudley Sargent, "quick judgment in unforeseen exigencies, alertness, quick perception, prolonged attention, great self-control, self-direction, and self-sacrifice."

In addition to all the foregoing in group play is the almost greater one of fair play, which in organized play is taught by the game itself. Our chief accusation against the Hun is his lack of sportsmanship. He does not play fair. He does not abide by the rules of the game. The whole world is engaged in the effort to teach the Hun the standards learned on the football and baseball fields.

Physical training has already done wonders in transforming the old, hard, undemocratic, unsocial school. It can do much more, but there is a lurking danger. It is that of the mechanical standardization of physical education. Joy, will, social interplay, real opportunities for leadership must remain if it is to continue to be a living factor in the ascent of the school to better things.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN RURAL SCHOOLS

LAWRENCE L. HILL, DIRECTOR OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION, ALBANY, N.Y.

Physical education in rural schools is a problem that has not yet been satisfactorily solved. It is a problem that presents several angles. We must determine the needs of the rural communities in a physical, moral, and social way. We must determine what physical education should include and how to inaugurate and organize its various phases.

There has been rather consistent opposition to physical education in the rural communities. Opposition to this so-called "fad" has its beginning in several facts. First, it involves the expenditure of money. The problem is indeed difficult of solution when communities come to value money more highly than they do activities that make for greater social, moral, and physical efficiency. Another reason for opposition to physical education in the rural schools is that the people of these communities do not realize the

value of this phase of education. They do not appreciate the need for a well-organized health program. They have not the right conception of what it is, what it includes, and what it should accomplish. Not the least of all causes for opposition is that in many of those districts where physical training has already been inaugurated the instructors supervising the work have not been properly trained. With such conditions it is little wonder that we find opposition to physical training as a part of the school curriculum.

What then can we do to overcome this opposition? We must go slowly. The most vital factor in the physical education program is, after all, the teacher and supervisor. People of proper training, of faculty for the work, with enthusiastic interest, and with a vision of the possibilities of the work and the opportunity for service will do more to develop wholesome recreational and civic activities than any other possible agency. They will popularize this training in the rural communities and wipe out the opposition to it.

And now we must determine the needs of the boys and girls of the rural schools and of the rural communities. These must necessarily be stated in general terms. In the first place, healthful and attractive surroundings are essential to the physical, mental, social, and moral welfare of the children and to the life of the community. Instruction in personal hygiene and sanitation of the schoolroom and school grounds is needed. But it is useless to preach if preaching is all we do. It is absolutely necessary for the boys and girls to learn these laws of health thru observation and practice.

School life is a severe nervous strain if the child is expected always to observe proper decorum and to sit still for long periods. We are fighting nature if we compel the child to do this. On the other hand, school life will not become a nervous strain if sufficient periods are given for relaxation and physical exercise. It is not a question of whether the school program affords time for this relaxation thru activity. It is a matter of changing our school program, if necessary, to meet the needs of the child.

Traditional school life has a harmful effect upon the normal posture of the body, and poor posture in turn works great havoc with the health of the child, because of the crowding of the vital organs of the body. The need of postural exercises is apparent. Rhythm and grace of movement are needs of the child. The habitual rhythm of motion is fundamental for full intellectual development. No phase of our education can train the individual in this respect quite as well as can games, athletics, rhythmic exercises, exercises to response, commands, and other branches of physical training.

The children of the soil need physical, mental, and moral courage. Exercises and games which require nerve, daring, courage, and skill should be given. Thru the appointment of leaders the individuals acquire confidence in themselves and the ability to lead others. They acquire the ability

to stand defeat as gracefully as victory; they learn recognition of the rights of others, cooperation, self-subordination for the good of the majority, and leadership thru team games and athletics. These rural children need perhaps more than any other one thing the social aspect of these games and contests. Rural communities must have more wholesome social life. There is a dire need for social centers in the country. We must develop these children while they are in school and give them something they can use when school days are past. We must develop the habit of wholesome exercise for after-school life.

To sum up these needs we may say that the rural child requires a special type of activity. It is useless to preach morality, self-control, recognition of the rights of others, altruism, self-confidence, determination, loyalty, cooperation, courage, skill, and a host of other attributes which the individual should acquire in school, if mere preaching is all that is attempted. It is necessary to give the individual opportunity to learn these valuable lessons for himself, and this he can do thru normal directed activity better than he can in any other way.

In order to inaugurate a program of this character it is necessary that each community should have a general community leader. Whatever the future may develop in bringing this need to a practical realization in terms of specific organization, for the present at least this work must be done by the local leader of physical education. The physical director in a rural community, to be able properly to work out this program, must have a very definite and concrete knowledge of personal and school hygiene, health and sanitary inspections, of inspection for signs of abnormality and injury or illness, for conditions which call for immediate attention on the part of the teacher, and for signs of disordered health for which children should be kept at home; of the organization and duties of health officers and pupil sanitary inspectors; she must have a very definite and concrete knowledge of physical training and all that this term implies, and the practical conduct and organization of the various phases of physical training into a rational health program; she must have a very definite and concrete knowledge of the nature and function of play, of child nature, of festivals and entertainments for old and young, of the social center or community center; and, besides all this, she must have a vision of the service and duties of a general community leader as well as a technical knowledge of her subject.

The oft-repeated assertion that the rural communities are the basic social organization upon which rests the stability of the nation still holds true. A proper conception, therefore, of rural physical education is a fundamental educational necessity if a definite program of development is needed. An adequately trained personnel to put this program in operation is the first step in the right direction. In some of the states this idea is already taking definite form in legislation and educational organizations. A nation-wide movement to this end is indicated for the near future. This body can do

no more constructive service to the general advancement of physical education in America than by a sane and enthusiastic support of that important phase of physical education so urgently needed in rural communities.

CREED OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

RANDALL D. WARDEN, SUPERINTENDENT OF PHYSICAL TRAINING, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, NEWARK, N.J.

My body is my house. I must live in it as long as life lasts. If I take proper physical exercise this house will last longer and be a stronger, handsomer dwelling-place.

My muscles are the machines with which I must do all the tasks that destiny and determination place in my way. Exercising will keep the parts in smooth working order.

My will coordinates the forces within me. Physical education helps to develop man's will—the will to make the best of himself and to serve others. Consequently physical education is a factor in the world's progress, in its happiness, and in its joy in working and playing.

To build and preserve any nation it is necessary to inculcate ideals of physical prowess, national courage, sportsmanship, fair play, and self-preservation of man. To this end it is the first duty to perfect the body, attain symmetry of form, develop the coordinations of perfectly attuned nerves and muscles, and secure the lithesome power of the athlete.

This necessitates physical exercises of graded progression which must be given in the gymnasium on suitable apparatus. I am emphatic about this—in our country there have grown up systems of physical training in our public schools which are unworthy of public respect. You cannot teach manual training without a manual-training shop, you cannot teach chemistry without a laboratory, neither can you teach physical training without a gymnasium and gymnasium appliances. We must develop manhood and courage, and this cannot be done without a gymnasium to teach vaulting, swinging and climbing, boxing and wrestling, jumping and tumbling exercises.

The playfield too must be utilized, and competitive games, strenuous antagonistic sports, and daring feats must be practist. All over this country the mistake is being made of building schools with inadequate playground and playfield facilities. The public schools of the nation should be built in one corner of a six-acre field, and the playground and the athletic field should be just as much a part of the school plant as is the school building itself.

It is also the duty of the schools to give a knowledge of hygiene, so that pupils shall know the simple rules of health and thru habits of practice be led to adopt regular periods of play and outdoor recreation.

Public attention has been directed to the very surprising percentage of our youths who are unfit for military service. Everybody is now asking,

"Why is it that our boys are physically unfit to become soldiers?" In seeking for an answer to this we naturally turn to examine and scrutinize critically the constructive period of youth.

Is the home and environment responsible for this lack of stamina and undevelopt physique? Or is the national school system of our country responsible? In the end it makes no difference how much the home is to blame; if our democracy is to endure, the American people must demand that the schools assume the burden of this preparation for physical fitness.

The school children of today will become the soldiers of tomorrow and will have to pass the same, or greater, tests in future peace or warfare. The nation must never again be caught with the necessity of lowering the physical standards in its endeavor to fill the ranks and to make it possible for her young manhood to pass the physical tests for the army. It is perhaps difficult to make boards of education realize that this responsibility rests upon them.

The idea that physical education is a fad, a game of "hide-and-seek," and can be adequately given with the expenditure of eight or nine hundred dollars for a supervisor and three or four hundred dollars for a syllabus, and that the classroom teacher is prepared and trained and has the vision to teach this important subject, is an antiquated idea. Schools are willing to spend money on machine-shops, on manual-training shops, on laboratories; they are quite willing to employ teachers of stenography, of agriculture, of astronomy, and pay them good salaries; so too they must be willing to employ specialists to train and develop the manhood of the nation—men and women who can take the burden of this particular work off the hands of the regular classroom teacher, who has all she can do to teach the subjects already in the curriculum.

A gymnasium costs, let us say, $8000, but it is a permanent investment; it is there for all time. Gymnastic apparatus is practically unbreakable; under proper teaching the equipment will last several generations. Thus the only expense is the employment of the trained teacher—one who knows corrective gymnastics and can help the defective as well as the normal child; one who loves athletics and will organize and develop the athletics of the entire school so that each child may play his part; one who loves the out-of-doors, the sunshine, play, and happiness; one who will mold character and develop qualities of honesty and respect for authority and loyalty to leadership. Think of the many advantages arising from an expert in charge of the physical training of each school. He looks after the organized recesses, he looks after the seats and sees that they are adjusted in size, he instructs in simple measures of hygiene, he has the entire grammar department in after-school recreation, he develops dancing, he organizes athletics, he is a great factor in the discipline and *esprit de corps* of the school. In short, by precept and example, he has an opportunity to mold character, develop manhood, and inculcate ideals of fair play and citizenship among the pupils of

the school as no other teacher can, because of the sympathetic association he has with the student body.

The present war has brought us all up with a shock over our previous lethargy and indifference to universal physical training. It is vitally important that our schools henceforth include physical training in their curriculum and carry it out with the same degree of enthusiasm and success and with the same progressive advancement as has been experienst in the past in mental training.

A few states have undertaken by law to compel the teaching of physical training, but these laws are not at all satisfactory because they are not radical enough. Our physical education must be as radical as our recent development of an army. We have in our United States a school population of over twenty million pupils—a population greater than the entire number of inhabitants of Persia, Portugal, or any South American state. The future destiny of this Republic depends upon the physical vigor with which these young citizens are able to attack the problems which arise to confront them.

We are just beginning a new epoch in military affairs, and so too are about to begin a new epoch in public-school education. Our teachers must have greater recognition, their work must be appreciated, and they must be paid more money than day laborers. It is a shameful fact that teachers in America have been compelled to take the wages offered to apprentices, laborers, and household servants. Never again, however, should the women of this country accept the mean wages offered them by ignorant school commissioners.

The classroom teacher must also be relieved of teaching every subject under the sun. It has come to be expected of her to teach successfully the three R's, all the cultural subjects, science, and manual training. It is preposterous. We must recognize the fact that some of these subjects are in the province of the specialist, and of all these physical training ranks as foremost, because nations survive, not thru art, not thru science, not even thru religion, but only thru manhood and physical vigor.

As surely as the pendulum swings backward and forward, as surely as history repeats itself in cycles, just so surely physical education is beginning to receive thruout the world the consideration and the veneration that the Greeks gave to it before the decline of their civilization.

THE POLICY OF NEW YORK STATE WITH REGARD TO PHYSICAL TRAINING

JAMES G. RIGGS, PRINCIPAL, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, OSWEGO, N.Y.

Since the war broke on us, numerous facts growing out of the entrance of our young men into the military and naval service have brought sharply to our notice a certain lack in national health and a disclosure of a surpris-

ingly large percentage of men with a defective physique. A good physique is not for war purposes only. It is the first requirement for a steady occupation, good pay, and a contented mind. It is also the requisite for a happy home and a useful place in the social group. The successful pursuit of peace and happiness makes its claim for a virile manhood as well as does the profession of war. Neglect of physical well-being is the prelude to a train of ills for which the state in some form must pay the bills. These are truisms. There is no new way of stating them, but they emphasize a great lesson growing out of the Great War—that the fundamental problem is one of education. School administrators believe that the remedy lies in legislation for instruction in physical training thru the period of school life.

The New York State Department of Education, taking a broad and comprehensive view of its duty toward the health of its future citizens and of the scope of physical education in the schools, caused appropriate legislation to be enacted. It grew out of the state of public feeling on preparedness and embodies a notably constructive scheme. The New York law, approved May 15, 1916, and amended the following year, makes the following provision:

> All male and female pupils above the age of eight years, in all elementary or secondary schools of the state, shall receive as a part of the prescribed course of instruction therein, such physical training, under direction of the commissioner of education, as the regents, after conference with the Military Training Commission, may determine, during periods which shall average at least twenty minutes each school day. . . . . Similar courses of instruction shall be prescribed and maintained in private schools of the state, and all pupils in such schools, above eight years of age shall attend upon such course; and if such courses are not so establisht and maintained in any private school, attendance upon instruction in such school shall not be deemed substantially equivalent to instruction given to children of like ages in the public school or schools of the city or district in which the child resides.

Coincident with the physical-training law and also growing out of the public feeling toward preparedness, a law was adopted providing for military instruction. Altho it is under the control of the military authorities and its operations are carried on outside the schools, it is a companion measure to the physical-training law, as its provisions bear a direct relation to the young people of the state. It creates a Military Training Commission which recommends to the regents courses of instruction in physical training, "habits, customs, and methods best adapted to develop correct physical posture and bearing, mental and physical alertness, self-control, disciplined initiative, sense of duty, and the spirit of cooperation under leadership." The law provides that all boys above the age of sixteen and not over nineteen who are pupils in the public or private schools or colleges except certain exemptions, shall receive such military training as the commission may prescribe for periods aggregating not more than three hours in each week during the school year. The law provides similar training for boys not in school, excepting such as are employed in any occupation for a livelihood.

Insufficient time has elapst properly to report on the actual workings of this measure.

Quoting from Dr. Thomas A. Storey, state inspector of physical training, "The administration of this law is a function of the regents of the University of the State of New York, that is, of the State Department of Education. A Bureau of Physical Training has been establisht as a subdivision of the state military commission. The state inspector of physical training, the chief officer of the bureau, is required, in accordance with the law, to observe and inspect the work and methods described under the provisions of the education law relating to physical training. The state law in New York also provides that all public schools in the state employing teachers of physical training, qualified and duly licenst under the regulations of the regents, may receive financial support from the state to the extent of half the salary of each teacher so employed, provided that half the salary does not exceed $600."

At the last session of the legislature the sum of $60,000 was appropriated for the purpose of enabling the Department of Education of the state of New York to provide for the supervision and special instruction in physical training of teachers of other subjects who are assigned or designated as required by law to give instruction in physical training. This has special reference to rural teachers. The regents' rules already prescribe qualifications for teachers of physical training: the completion of an approved four-year high-school course, and subsequent thereto the completion of an approved two-year professional course in physical training.

At the instigation of Dr. Thomas E. Finegan, deputy commissioner of education, the legislature provided for the coming year a teacher of health subjects for the state normal schools and the state college for teachers. This also goes to the root of the matter in requiring each teacher who holds a normal diploma to have received instruction in the fundamentals of health and physical training. Obviously, a teacher of health subjects should be a trained nurse with a broad education and a personality which shall itself commend her subject.

Another provision not unconnected with physical training is the establishment at one of the state normal schools of a department for the training of teachers for that increasing class of children whose minds have not fully developt. A recently enacted law of the state requires that for each ten such children a special teacher and room shall be provided. This is another evidence of the broad and human interest of the state in her children, the future citizens, that they may have full opportunity in the formative years to reach the best development of which they are capable.

The State Department of Education has under its direction a chief medical inspector who has both a man and a woman as assistants; also a woman superintendent of school nurses; a lecturer on hygiene, a man; an inspector of oral hygiene, a man; a nuritional expert, a woman; a

mental and physical diagnostician, a man; and finally a woman organizer of special classes for the mentally retarded children.

These evidences show the attitude of New York state toward physical education, an attitude both positive and constructive, as exemplified in the legal provisions which have furnisht the basis for this paper.

WOMEN AND THE WAR

CLARA G. BAER, PROFESSOR OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION, NEWCOMB COLLEGE, TULANE UNIVERSITY, NEW ORLEANS, LA.

In looking backward over the history of the world one is always conscious of the presence of woman as shaping, more or less definitely as the customs of the period permitted, the destiny of races. It is true, except in very rare instances, that her career as a public character has been the simplest and least conspicuous; yet she has always shared the life of man—tho humbly, abjectly even, at times. One can truly say, and without prejudice, that the position woman has occupied in the development of a people is the measure of that people's civilization.

Civilization is changing, but the human heart and purposes seem the same thruout the ages; and woman is constantly repeating herself in history, accepting what life holds for her of devotion to a cause. Even when her sphere was limited she was often in the home alone, its only protection, while the man was off seeking means of sustenance thru field and forest. And when it became necessary to fight the wilderness she was at man's side, doing her part in the development of a new country and making it safe for liberty.

Is it any wonder then, when we are facing the most gigantic, nay titanic, struggle in the history of races, that we find woman intelligently interested and purposefully active in all projects where she may prove of real worth to the cause? It may not be necessary for her to be organized into battalions to do the active work at the front. That has ever been man's province, and while man exists it probably always will be. The famous Russ Death Battalion, however whole-hearted in its devotion, proved that to bear arms is not the real work of women.

The modern woman's work on the battlefields today is chiefly that of caring for the wounded and the dying. In this great war crisis the service of women as angels of mercy, in the great work of the Red Cross, will go down in history. Only time can tell how glorious the work has been. There are thousands of men who will testify before the great throne the comforting power of woman's work in this Great War. And many sons, sweethearts, and fathers will come home from "over there" restored to life and home as the result of the devoted nursing and care of some good woman.

The absoluteness of the surrender of life to the cause by women of high and low degree is one of the marvels of the time. Yet not a marvel

when one realizes that women are but a part of the great mother-heart of nature. Man, injured, bleeding, suffering, calls forth the greatest services of which a woman is capable. Here one could pause—for in this fact lies the crux of the whole matter: man, the fighter; woman, the helpmeet.

The question of how to help today is not so simple. Life is making so many more calls upon woman. It is becoming much more complex in the ever-increasing avenues of service opening to her, but her intensive preparation for the work she intends to do is manifested on all sides, both in this country and abroad. As always in her history, woman is accepting her lot, answering the call with, "Here am I, Lord," and giving her whole heart to the service. It is true that she will make mistakes; she may stumble by the way, but her eyes are directed to the duty ahead and she will not falter. How much the future holds of duty and service for each woman only time can tell.

Thousands of our men are yielding up their lives that the home may be safe. In this great need we can feel assured that, so far as human nature can work, woman will do her part to hold civilization together, to keep the wheels of progress turning, and to safeguard the young citizens of the land. A Herculean task it will prove.

To meet the exigencies of the occasion the life of woman must, for a time at least, be more or less revolutionized. She will be called upon to do things scarcely thought to be woman's work. One cannot say how or what shall be the limit of her opportunities. We are not afraid that she will fail. The woman's touch will glorify and make fine the task wherever it may be performed. The same single-heartedness of purpose and devotion to an ideal that have always characterized her life will furnish the motive power in this new life, among these greater cares and graver responsibilities. Out of this great carnage will spring a purer ideal of citizenship. It will no longer be a question of woman "unsexing" herself in doing a more varied work and in living a larger life, but it will be a finer civilization, where men and women, as God intended, shall work together for the betterment of humanity.

In order to fit herself for the task woman recognizes that the first and greatest requisite for success is a fine, strong, resistive body. The athletic girl has come to stay. With her has come the recognition that fresh air is the greatest beautifier on earth; that what one eats and drinks determines largely how one thinks; that freedom of carriage and life depend upon proper, hygienic dress; that littleness of thought has no place in the larger life; also that "thoughts are things"—vivid, life-compelling, purposeful, or death-dealing and destructive. She will manifest in her life what Ingomar meant when he said of Parthenia, "She rules herself," determining what character of life she will live, planning it definitely and intelligently.

Woman, this "New Woman," added to the great army of earth, is a power tremendous in her gentle, forceful nature. As the simple blade of

grass forces its way between great rocks to reach the sunlight, so woman will pass thru the difficulties that beset her life, and in this new light of a greater opportunity will bring to the world blessed, efficient service.

EFFECTIVE HEALTH EDUCATION THRU PUBLIC SCHOOLS

HELEN L. GREGORY, MEMBER, BOARD OF EDUCATION, ROCHESTER, N.Y.

If the nation is to have a strong, enduring foundation, if compulsory educational laws are worth anything, then there is an absolute necessity for children to have the most skilful training and care possible; otherwise the "nation will have but poor material to lean upon."

Children should be trained in youth, when habits are less fixt and the sports and games are inherent; then students on leaving school would carry with them the love of health-giving sports and games, the knowledge of how to keep themselves "fit," as the English say, and our nation would not be forst, as it is today, to report 50 per cent only as physically able for service, and this too, remember, among those of vigorous years.

Dr. Thomas Wood says that all the necesary forces should be marshaled for the work of developing physical and health training, and we have the right to look to the schools as the official accredited agency to lead in such a program.

We believe a pupil-governed health club in every schoolroom offers the most practical means of driving home the classroom lessons in hygiene.

This subject, hygiene, will never be taught effectively, no matter how perfect the outline may be, or how strongly presented, until the children have some incentive to live up to hygienic rules other than the teacher's constant appeal to do so.

This pupil-governed health club, one of the most alive contributions in the field of physical training today and one adopted in very many states, is the "incentive" which is going to make possible effective health training, and the extra time demanded for this work is well spent and pays large dividends.

DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—O. M. Plummer, member, Board of Education ..... Portland, Ore.
Vice-President—Albert Wunderlich, school director ..... St. Paul, Minn.
Secretary—William C. Bruce, editor, *School Board Journal* ..... Milwaukee, Wis.

FIRST SESSION—Tuesday Forenoon, July 2, 1918

The Department of School Administration was called to order for the first session at 9:35 a.m. The vice-president of the department, Mr. Albert Wunderlich, presided. Addresses were given as follows:

"Introductory Address"—Albert Wunderlich, commissioner of schools, St. Paul, Minn.

"Recent Growth in the Administration of City Schools"—W. S. Deffenbaugh, United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.

"War Policies for Schools"—George W. Gerwig, secretary, Board of Education, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"State and School Administration"—Thomas E. Finegan, deputy state commissioner of education, Albany, N.Y.

"Americanization as a War-Time Duty of the Schools"—J. George Becht, secretary, Pennsylvania State Board of Education, Harrisburg, Pa.

The chair appointed Mr. A. A. McDonald, Sioux Falls, S.D., and Mr. L. N. Hines, Crawfordsville, Ind., to act as a nominating committee.

The meeting adjourned at noon, after a general discussion of the papers.

SECOND SESSION—Wednesday Forenoon, July 3, 1918

The department reassembled on Wednesday at 9:30 a.m. Papers were read as follows:

"School Finances as a War-Time Problem"—Edward L. Taylor, president, Board of Education, Williamsport, Pa.

"School Budgets and School Finance"—Marvin E. Griswold, president, Board of Education, Erie, Pa.

"Uniformity in School Accounting"—James Storer, secretary, Board of Education, Buffalo, N.Y.

"The Responsibilities of Boards of Education"—Mrs. Charles A. Perkins, president, Board of Education, Knoxville, Tenn.

The nominating committee reported the following names for 1918–19:

President—Mr. Albert Wunderlich, commissioner of schools, St. Paul, Minn.

Vice-President—Dr. George W. Gerwig, secretary, Board of Education, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Secretary—Wm. C. Bruce, editor, *School Board Journal*, Milwaukee, Wis.

The nominations were unanimously accepted.

THIRD SESSION—WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 3, 1918

The department met in round-table session to receive the report of the Committee on Standardization of Schoolhouse Planning and Construction.

A general preliminary report was read by Frank Irving Cooper, chairman. Supplementary reports on special phases of the subject were received as follows:

"Investigation of the Amount of Illumination Required on the Printed Page"—Frank N. Freeman, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

"Heating and Ventilation of School Buildings"—John D. Cassell, chairman, Associate Committee, Society of American Heating and Ventilating Engineers.

The discussion of the report was participated in by James O. Betelle, Newark, N.J.; H. B. C. Eicher, Harrisburg, Pa.; Dwight H. Perkins, Chicago, Ill.; J. H. Berkowitz, New York, N.Y.; William C. Bruce, Milwaukee, Wis.; George W. Gerwig, Pittsburgh, Pa.; A. E. Winship, Boston, Mass.; and Mr. Dambach, Pittsburgh, Pa.

On motion the reports were received and the committee was continued to complete its work.

The following resolution was introduced by Wm. C. Bruce:

Resolved, That the Department of Administration of the National Education Association desires to express its appreciation of the financial support given by the General Education Board to the Committee on Standardization of Schoolhouse Planning and Construction.

This support has made possible the extension work of the committee during the past year, the tabulation of hundreds of plans from many states, the fixing of tentative standards of space for the various divisions of school activities, and a method of determining efficiency or taste in the plan of the school building.

The Department of Administration believes the work of the committee will be of importance in the economic administration of the erection of school buildings, and further directs that the secretary send a copy of this resolution to the General Education Board.

The resolution was adopted unanimously.

On motion of G. W. Gerwig, of Washington, the committee was authorized to have its preliminary report publisht by arrangement with the United States Bureau of Education.

The meeting adjourned until the Chicago winter meeting of the Association.

WM. C. BRUCE, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

INTRODUCTORY ADDRESS

ALBERT WUNDERLICH, DIRECTOR OF SCHOOLS, ST. PAUL, MINN.

It is impossible to discuss anything today except in terms of the war. More particularly is this true of education. We are fighting the greatest war of all time; we are spending incalculable sums of money; we are focusing all of our industries, transportation, and processes of production on the great issue of making the world safe for democracy.

It is an axiom of political science that no democracy can long endure upon any other basis than widespread general intelligence and virtue. It is peculiarly the problem of the school to provide the means whereby general intelligence may become possible, and the kind of intelligence which will insure ideals of honesty, thrift, industry, and patriotism.

The fact that we are now at war has not in any degree lessened the responsibility of the school. In my judgment it has, on the contrary, greatly increast that responsibility. As school-board members we have a larger obligation than the past has ever given to us to see that our schools are operated with the maximum of efficiency.

It must not be said of the United States that it cheerfully raises billions of dollars for the prosecution of a war to make the world safe for democracy and grudges a sufficient expenditure for public education—the only means of making democracy safe at home.

In the city from which I come the children of the public schools have raised for the federal government in the last ten months twice as much money as has been spent by the city for schoolhouses in its entire corporate existence.

There has been no more loyal or efficient agency at the command of the government than the public schools. They have demonstrated beyond question their value as an investment of public money. I believe that it is our duty to stop talking about costs of education and unite our energies with all our other agencies in a widespread national campaign in the interest of more efficient education. In this campaign I believe that we should stand squarely on the proposition of largely increast salaries to teachers; I believe that we must insist upon the employment of better-trained teachers and upon the unqualified elimination of the incompetent. I do not believe that it is an honest expenditure of money or sound educational policy to force children in their tender years to sit under anything but the best type of instruction.

I believe that we must continue our building program; we must emphasize physical education; we must insist upon vocational education as a part of our regular educational policy. I do not believe that the question of buildings and school architecture should absorb all the deliberations of the school-board section; I believe that there are other problems entitled to equal consideration. I urge upon the attention of this body the careful consideration of the whole educational situation.

RECENT GROWTH IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF CITY SCHOOLS

W. S. DEFFENBAUGH, UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D.C.

School laws have been so changed that it is now the rule for city school boards to have not more than nine members. This has been a distinct improvement. Business relating to the schools is discust with more thoroness. The man with ideas, tho unable to make a speech, is able to present them while he sits at a table. An equal, or even greater, improvement in

the administration of city schools has been the substitution of elections at large for election by wards. Men of a better class are elected; they are more inclined to pull together in the interests of the whole city; they do less logrolling.

Tho the size of school boards has been reduced, one of the evils of the large board remains in some cities—a large number of standing committees. These have hung on as a sort of vermiform appendix, with no useful function to perform, and often cause internal trouble. The functions of many committees, such as those on promotion of pupils, examinations, course of study, truancy, and school entertainments, duplicate the function of the superintendent and his assistants.

The tendency is to get away from committee organization, or at least from the practice of having many different committees. Some of the school boards in both the smaller and the larger cities have abolisht all standing committees. Some others have reduced the number, usually to two or three, thus tending to make the administrative machinery simpler and lighter running.

The new type of superintendent has learned to show what the schools are accomplishing and what the children have achieved. He is using more definite measurements. His annual reports are no longer abstract treatises on education or mere political documents. The frankness with which many superintendents set forth conditions in their schools is an indication of a change for the better.

Mention should be made of the improvement in school administration thru the influence of the school survey. Tho the results in the cities where surveys have been made have not always been all that could be desired, they have on the whole been helpful to school administrators. They have at least shown a method of attacking educational problems, and they have aroused greater interest in school administration, especially in the approach from the fact side. As a result of the surveys more superintendents are surveying their own schools, which is evidenst by the better type of school report. If the outside survey has accomplisht nothing more than to cause school men to study their own schools it has been worth while. Whether surveys by persons from outside the school system being surveyed will continue is a question. One thing is certain: there will be more and better self-surveys. Superintendents surveying their own schools may call in someone as a consulting specialist to help them interpret the facts. As bureaus of research are organized surveys by outsiders will no doubt become fewer.

Among other improvements in school administration should be mentioned the introduction of courses of study to meet individual weaknesses and strengths in pupils. The aim is to give every child a fair show, to make education more democratic, to offer the child who has ability in manual and technical lines the same opportunity as the child who is book-minded, or the child who is preparing for the college classical course.

AMERICANIZATION AS A WAR-TIME DUTY OF THE SCHOOLS

J. GEORGE BECHT, SECRETARY, PENNSYLVANIA STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION, HARRISBURG, PA.

The problem of Americanizing America has, in view of the war, assumed an unusual place in the thought of the general public. Up to a few years ago, in our fancied security, we did not even dream that it was a problem. We assumed that thru the process of education and environment the amalgamation of the alien into our American life would take care of itself. But our smug complacency was rudely jarred when we awoke to the fact that about one-sixth of our population was directly or indirectly subject to alien influences. In the life of some of the commonwealths the problem may be a mere incident, but in a considerable number of states the question is freighted with tremendous consequences. More particularly was our attention drawn to the facts when this alien element registered for the great Army, and later, when these men were drafted into the service, whole groups were found who could not understand English and consequently did not know how to respond to the commands of officers.

Roughly speaking, there are two general aspects of the case: first, the education of the adult alien; secondly, the education of the children of the alien. So far as the children are concerned the problem will work out its own answer in the public schools. If the schools are good for the American child and are saturated with the spirit of loyalty, service, and sacrifice for the country, there is every probability that the alien child will absorb this spirit and become a patriotic citizen. Indirectly too this influence will exert itself on the alien parents in the home.

The real problem, however, is the problem of the adult. He is often illiterate and generally suspicious. He does not understand. He isolates himself with his kind. He broods over the conditions under which he lives and works and becomes dissatisfied. The group with which he associates is influenst in the same manner. Such groups, misunderstood and often ostracized, are disappointed; and this disappointment gives way to discontent and dissatisfaction which often expresses itself in turbulence. Something has been done in the way of organizing social centers where all of these people may come in contact with American ideas and American activities. Much, however, remains to be done. One of the most significant phases of the problem is that of teaching the adult alien to read and understand the English language and its literature. Night schools have been establisht in many towns and cities, and these have been giving reasonably good service, but on the whole it may be said that the results have not been satisfactory. The difficulty lies in the fact that the adult, having workt at his occupation all day, comes to the class at night physically fatigued. It is a very short step from that physical tire to mental inattention, and I have seen in many of these classes the attempts of earnest and conscientious

aliens to keep awake during the hour when the school was in session. It seems to me that one of the best methods of dealing with the education of the adult will be to cooperate with the employer of the alien and work out his education as a part of his employment. Wherever that has been done the most conspicuous success has been attained. Not only has the alien profited, but the employer was more than compensated for the time given to the employé out of working hours.

This transfer of patriotic feeling from one country to another is no simple matter. We must make more than lip patriots. The first step that the school must emphasize, whether that school be in a regular school building or connected with the shop or factory, is a mastery of the English language; the second problem is to make the alien understand the opportunities, responsibilities, and limitations of liberty. Here is a tremendous task. Citizenship is not a special topic in the schools or the work of a separate department. Every recitation is a lesson in citizenship. It does not involve new institutions, new organizations, new texts, or new subject-matter. It does mean a new attitude on the part of teachers and a new atmosphere in the school. Children, as well as adults, must be helpt to think thru the problems of the community and the relationship of the individual to the social group to which he belongs, as well as to the civic order. The problem in the last analysis is individual. The wealth in character of the state is the wealth in character of the individuals composing it. The public school has been an efficient agency in developing personal ideals. If that influence can be brought to bear upon the adult alien, there is little reason to doubt that America can and will be thoroly Americanized.

SCHOOL FINANCES AS A WAR-TIME PROBLEM

EDWARD L. TAYLOR, PRESIDENT, BOARD OF EDUCATION, WILLIAMSPORT, PA.

With the demand and necessity, on the one side, that the standard of efficiency of the public schools be maintained, that teachers' salaries be increast in proportion to the increast cost of living and to the services rendered, that all necessary equipment be provided for teachers and pupils, and, on the other side, that the strictest economy in all public affairs be observed, the school-board member is indeed confronted with a serious financial problem in these unusual times.

It will, of course, be admitted that the first requisite for efficient schools is efficient teachers. But we cannot, in the face of present conditions, retain many of our best teachers unless we provide for salary increases sufficient to cover at least the larger part of the increast cost in living expenses. All over the country we are losing thousands of our men and many of our best women teachers thru their entrance into the United States

service or into some organization connected with the conduct of the war. We commend the patriotism of these noble young men and women, but their going makes it still more necessary, still more important, that thousands of other good teachers must not be allowed to abandon their profession for business if a fair recognition of their financial needs on the part of those in control will keep them in the schoolrooms.

In our city, since the outbreak of the war in 1914, we have increast the salary list nearly 35 per cent on the average amount paid our teachers. In consequence of this action the members of our teaching force feel that the board of directors and the superintendent of schools have endeavored to treat them as fairly as conditions will permit, and an excellent spirit of cooperation as well as enthusiasm and efficiency has been developt.

You may ask how we have found it possible to increase our average salary 35 per cent in four years. The answer is very simple. We have increast the tax rate 40 per cent in the same period, and I am glad to say that while there has been some criticism of this large increase the great majority of our citizens recognize the fact that the standard of efficiency in our schools cannot be maintained upon the financial basis which existed before the war.

Altho the increase in the teachers' salary list is the largest item of our increast expenses, we have found that there has been an enormous increase in the cost of all kinds of supplies and equipment. Our coal bill for 1917–18 shows an increase of 108 per cent over the year 1913–14. The advances in the cost of all kinds of stationery have been nearly as large, but by practicing the most rigid economy in the use of supplies we have saved considerable money in this item. The cost of minor repairs to buildings has shown a great increase as far as material is concerned, but we have cut the labor cost in two, compared with four years ago, thru the election of a superintendent of buildings who is a thoro mechanic and either makes the repairs himself or has them made by competent workmen under his direction. All improvements to buildings that can be postponed without affecting the efficiency of the schools are withheld for more favorable conditions.

The financing of new school buildings under present conditions is also a great problem for school authorities. The city that does not need a new building, either to provide for increase in the school population or to take the place of an obsolete, perhaps condemned, building is indeed fortunate.

In our city we built a very good high-school building four years ago at a cost, including equipment, of approximately $300,000. We had planned to use the old high-school building for either a grammar school or a junior high school, but it was destroyed by fire just before the new building was ready for occupancy. We then proposed to build two new buildings. We askt our citizens to approve a bond issue of $300,000 to provide these buildings, and as our people are always ready to sustain the board of

education in its efforts to improve school facilities their approval of the loan was secured at the election held in November last.

It took some time to conclude all the legal proceedings incidental to the loan, and we found that in the meantime the price of labor and material had advanst to such an extent that it had become impossible to obtain two buildings of the construction and capacity needed for the amount we had been authorized to expend. Even tho we had a larger loan authorized there would still be obstacles to overcome, for while it might be possible to obtain the approval of the capital issues committee for at least one of our needed buildings, it is very doubtful if that committee would approve the erection of both of them.

Of still more importance than the financial problem of new school buildings just now is the necessity for observing the demand for the closest restriction of consumption for private, state, and municipal purposes of labor and raw material. Paul M. Warburg, at a recent meeting of the National Conference on War-Time Economy, held in New York and called under the initiative of the Academy of Political Science and the Bureau of Municipal Research, said:

> Individuals will save in small things when state and city governments demonstrate their determination to save in the great ones. . . . . In time of war nothing is more dangerous than delay. The present emergency requires that the country be aroused to a thoro consciousness of the fact that whoever uses material, credit, labor, or transportation unnecessarily is placing a handicap upon his government in its progress toward victory.

In view of such a statement, made by a man recognized as an authority on economics, who is in close touch with governmental affairs, it seems imperative that the building of new schoolhouses be postponed if possible.

And yet it will probably be many years before schoolhouses can be constructed at less than such buildings would cost today. Mr. Replogle, government director of steel supply, recently made an interesting statement bearing upon this matter to a gathering of the principal manufacturers of the country. He said, "The building construction and plans of the United States government, incidentally, are right now some 20 per cent in excess of the total building construction of the United States for the three-year period 1915, 1916, and 1917." He went on to say that plans "are advancing into 1919 and 1920," and he declared to the intelligent body addrest that he thought the construction plan of the government "far beyond the impression of almost any of you." Mr. Replogle's statement is a revelation to most of us and should have full consideration.

We should remember, however, that our good friends the school architects have not made any material advance in their commissions for preparing plans and specifications, and the wise board of school directors in districts where new buildings are needed will employ an architect and have their plans drawn and ready for the contractors' bids when the word is flasht that Kaiser Bill and his bloodthirsty Huns have been forst to sue for peace and the war is at an end.

And finally I appeal to school authorities all over the land to stand for efficiency in the public schools, to oppose the lowering of the standard in any manner, to have the courage to make such advance in tax levies as may be required to meet advance in the cost of the maintenance of the schools. The school-board member who does these things faithfully is a true patriot and is performing for his country a great service in these critical times when men of intelligence and courage are needed.

SCHOOL BUDGETS AND SCHOOL FINANCE

MARVIN E. GRISWOLD, PRESIDENT, BOARD OF EDUCATION, ERIE, PA.

In considering the subject of budgets and finance it is particularly important to have before one sufficient statistics of what has been done in previous years, so that there can be some intelligent comparisons as to both receipts and expenditures.

I have been a member of the board of education of the city of Erie for approximately eight years, and during that time I fail to recollect or remember that we have had from our state board of education any assistance, or any statistics that would be of any help, or any communications giving us assistance along the lines of what the legitimate expense of operating a modern school should be.

It would seem to me that the state board could well afford to assemble a financial statement of the various school districts, not only of this state but of other states, and put it out in the form of a primer that would be of decided assistance to the board members of the local boards in fixing the estimates and expenditures in their several communities.

If we had some statistics that would give us the cost per capita for education in the various cities, groupt according to size, it would throw considerable light on the subject of how much we ought to spend, or could spend, if we were going to keep up with the progressive cities or to stay back with the unprogressive ones.

In making up a budget it is well to have the expenditures subdivided under the various classifications. I think that in Erie we have workt out along this line a system that is exceptionally good. We subdivide our expenditures into eight different heads, or groups, numbered and named as follows:

EXPENDITURES

(10) General Administration, (20) Instruction, (30) Operation of School Plant, (40) Maintenance of School Plant, (50) Auxiliary Agencies, (60) Miscellaneous Expenses, (70) Outlays for Acquisition and Construction, (80) Debt and Debt Service.

We have drawn up on a sheet under these eight different heads the amounts we have appropriated each year for four or five years previous to

compare with the amount of the estimates or requirements for expenditures under these heads for the coming year, and this shows graphically under each head the yearly increase or decrease in cost.

On the receipt or opposite side of the ledger we subdivide into two general heads, non-revenue and revenue. Numbering and naming the heads, we subdivide them as follows:

RECEIPTS

(120) *Non-Revenue:* Sale of Bonds, Temporary Loan, Sale of Property, Sale of Leases, Subscriptions, Balance on Hand.

(140) *Revenue:* State, Bequests, Taxes ($8\frac{1}{2}$, $9\frac{1}{2}$, and $10\frac{1}{2}$ mills), Rents, Interest on Daily Balances, Non-Resident Tuition, General.

This shows us what the receipts are to be. These receipts keep changing by the increase or decrease of the amount of bonds sold and of the amount of tax levied. The other items will naturally be practically stationary and can easily be estimated.

Farther on in the budget we go into the details of these subdivisions under each general head, itemizing with considerable detail to show what each particular item is, and what is its estimated cost.

In order to get all this information together we send out, about three months in advance, blank sheets to all the departments requesting them to submit estimates and details of what they think is necessary in their several departments for the coming year. These estimates are then assembled and placed in the proper sections or subdivisions.

After this is all assembled in one book it is then the province of the Finance Committee to go over this entire budget in detail and study each item carefully to see what should be eliminated or what should be added.

During the deliberations of the Finance Committee on the budget it is very necessary that we have present a representative of each of the various departments, so that we can get their views on each individual item as it is considered. It is also very necessary to have before us the exact amount of what has been spent under each division in previous years; also actual statistics of the number of pupils to be served in comparison with the number served in previous years.

With careful study of the records and with the knowledge on the part of the school directors of what the real needs of the schools are, an intelligent and workable estimate, or budget, can be workt out.

In a recent issue of the *School Board Journal* I notist an article by Dr. Ballou, assistant superintendent of schools in Boston, in which he states that in his opinion "efficient finance in a city school system depends primarily on a reasonable amount of money for the needs of the schools and a rational plan for its distribution."

An efficient and carefully studied budget certainly meets the idea of a rational plan for distribution and does not leave the matter for haphazard expenditure during the fiscal year.

He also states that it depends on a reasonable amount of money. We are fortunate in the state of Pennsylvania, at least in the school districts of cities of the second class (of which Erie is one), in having the law so read that the taxes are levied for school purposes directly by the board of education. The amount of the levy does not have to be approved by any other department of the city government and therefore is in no way mixt up with any politics, outside of the politics that there might be in the school board itself.

If we are to maintain in this country an efficient public-school system we must make up our minds to spend a reasonable amount of money per capita to educate the children and must justify ourselves and the public in spending as much money, or even more money, for education during the stress of war time as we have spent previously.

We have been told that we are fighting for democracy, and we realize that the nations of the world are at war to uphold their ideas of government. If nations and the people of the nations are willing to sacrifice their wealth and life itself to uphold their ideas of government, is it not important that we make some efforts to teach the coming generation what we believe are the true ideas of government, and what we really mean by democracy?

It would seem to me that this is one of the most important things that our schools can do. Teach the children what a government is, what a government is for, and what we think a government should be, and perhaps if this is done, and done thoroly, the seed may be sown, and such a government may be developt that its effect will spread universally, as its benefits are seen, and the next generation will be spared such a bloody and costly war as we are now enduring. I believe that the schools and the schools alone can do it, and I believe that a war budget should not be cut but should be maintained and even expanded, and that our educators should give a great deal of time and study to developing a study of government that will make a lasting impression on the children in the grades.

UNIFORMITY IN SCHOOL ACCOUNTING

JAMES STOVER, SECRETARY, BOARD OF EDUCATION, BUFFALO, N.Y.

Public education is a state function. A board of education acts as an agent of the state and also acts in the capacity of agent for the local community in establishing the policies under which the officials, teachers, etc., of the department shall operate in the administration of its schools.

The problem of securing the funds necessary for school administration rests with the board and the superintendent, hence upon them lies the burden of proving to the community the needs of the school department. The public is entitled to know and should know how school appropriations are expended.

In all our cities we find citizens who are very much interested in the schools of their city and are proud of the fact that it maintains a high school with an enrolment of a thousand pupils, with fifty men and women on the faculty, and that this or that special feature may be found in their high school. These same citizens very likely would be much interested in making comparisons of their city with other cities of nearly the same size, that is, to analyze the statistics of other cities of nearly the same size in order to ascertain whether or not the teachers receive the same salary in all of the cities, whether the repair of buildings and upkeep of grounds are nearly the same in all cities, whether the cost of education per pupil is nearly the same, and many other items which cannot be enumerated.

If this is true of the people of our communities it is equally true of the officials of the school system who must prepare the estimates of expenditures for presentation to the city council.

A board of education may have under consideration the establishment of a special class for the instruction of the partially blind. One of the first steps will be that the superintendent or secretary find out what is being done in other cities and what it costs. Files are resorted to and the annual reports of various cities searcht. In some it is found, in others not. Why? Because up to a very few years ago there were about as many different methods of school accounting as there were city school systems. It is only within very recent years that city school systems have adopted a fairly uniform form to be used in recording financial statistics.

Railroad companies, insurance companies, interstate corporations, banks, etc., all use uniform or standardized methods of accounting and find this to be an absolute necessity for intelligent and profitable administration.

In order then to make comparisons of costs for different items and for different parts of a school system it has been found expedient gradually to adopt a uniform financial report, so that when the superintendent and the board of education are considering budget estimates they may have before them, not only the statement of annual expenditures of their own city for various educational activities over a period of years, but that of other cities of the same size situated in the eastern, southern, northern, or western part of the United States.[1]

Thru the use of uniform financial reports a gradual elimination of "lump sums with no details" is being brought about. School officials can now readily provide information, when requested, as to the total expenditures for salaries of principals of day elementary schools, day high schools, evening elementary schools, evening high schools, vocational schools, normal schools, and special schools, whereas in former years all of these appeared

[1] For those who are interested in the preparing of budgets see the article "Efficient Finance in a City School System," by F. W. Ballou, in the *American School Board Journal*, June, 1918.

in the financial statement as salaries of principals. The same is true of the salaries of teachers, cost of textbooks, janitorial service, etc.

The United States Bureau of Education, the United States Census Office, the University of the State of New York, the Association of School Accounting Officers, and the Committee of the National Council of Education on Uniform Records and Reports have cooperated in preparing a form which has been adopted within recent years by many city school systems.

The form recently adopted in the state of New York involved the keeping of all school financial records under the following headings:

I. Expenses of General Control (Overhead charges)
(Classified for Ledger Column, Total, Salaries, and Other Objects)
A. Business Administration
1. School election
2. Board of education and secretary's office
3. Finance offices and accounts
4. Offices in charge of buildings and supplies
5. Legal services
6. Operation and maintenance of office buildings
7. Other expenses of business control
B. Educational Administration
8. Office of superintendent of schools
9. Enforcement of compulsory education, truancy laws, and census enumeration
10. Other expenses of educational control

Total Expenses of General Control

II. Expenses of Instruction—Day Schools
(Classified under Ledger Column, Total, Elementary Secondary, Normal, Vocational, Special)
A. Supervision
11. Salaries of supervisors of grades and subjects
12. Other expenses of supervisors
13. Salaries of principals
14. Salaries of principals' clerks and office assistants
15. Other expenses of principals' offices
16. Other expenses of supervision
B. Teaching
17. Salaries of teachers
18. Textbooks
19. Other supplies used in instruction
20. Other expenses of instruction

Total Expense of Instruction for Day Schools

III. Expenses of Instruction—Night Schools
(Classified under Ledger Column, Total, Elementary, Secondary, Normal, Vocational, Special)
A. Supervision
21. Salaries of supervisors of grades and subjects
22. Other expenses of supervisors
23. Salaries of principals

24. Salaries of principals' clerks and office assistants
25. Other expenses of supervision
26. Other expenses of principals' offices

B. Teaching

27. Salaries of teachers
28. Textbooks
29. Other supplies used in instruction
30. Other expenses of instruction

TOTAL EXPENSE OF INSTRUCTION FOR NIGHT SCHOOLS

TOTAL EXPENSE OF INSTRUCTION

IV. EXPENSES OF OPERATION OF SCHOOL PLANT

(Classified under Ledger Column, Total Salaries, Other Objects)

31. Wages—janitors, other employés
32. Fuel
33. Water
34. Light and power
35. Janitors' supplies
36. Services other than personal
36*a*. Other expenses of operation

TOTAL EXPENSES OF OPERATION OF PLANT

V. EXPENSES OF MAINTENANCE OF SCHOOL PLANT

(Classified under Ledger Column, Total, Salaries, Other Objects)

37. Upkeep of grounds
37*a*. Repair of buildings
38. Repair and replacements
    a) Of heating, lighting, and plumbing equipment
    b) Of apparatus used in instruction
    c) Of furniture
    d) Of other equipment
39. Other expenses of maintenance of school plant

VI. EXPENSES OF AUXILIARY AGENCIES AND SUNDRY ACTIVITIES

(Classified under Ledger Column, Total, Salaries, and Other Objects)

40. Libraries
    a) Salaries
    b) Books, repairs, and replacements
    c) Other expenses for libraries
41. New books (capital outlay)
42. Promotion of health
    a) Medical inspection
    b) Nurse service
    c) Dental service
    d) Other expenses
43. Transportation of pupils
44. Care of children in institutions
45. Provision of lunches
46. Community lectures
47. Social centers
48. Recreation
49. Other auxiliary agencies and sundry activities
50. Payment to private schools
51. Payments to schools of other civil institutions (tuition)

TOTAL EXPENDITURES FOR AUXILIARY AGENTS

VII. Expenses of Fixed Charges
(Classified under Ledger Column, Total, Salaries, Other Objects)
52. Pensions
53. Rent
54. Insurance
55. Taxes
56. Contributions and contingencies
Total Expenses of Fixed Charges
Total Current Expenses

VIII. Expenses of Debt Service
(Classified under Ledger Column, Total, Salaries, Other Objects)
57. Redemption of bonds
58. Payment of sinking fund
59. Redemption of short-term loans
60. Payment of interest on bonds
61. Payment of interest on short-term loans
62. Refunds (tax and tuition)
Total Expenses of Debt Service

IX. Expenditures in Capital Outlay
(Acquisition and construction) (Classified under Ledger Column, Total, Salaries, Other Objects)
63. Land (new)
63*a*. Improvement of new grounds
64. New buildings
65. Alteration of old buildings
65*a*. New buildings and grounds
66. Heating, lighting, plumbing
66*a*. Furniture
66*b*. Instructional apparatus
66*c*. Other equipment
66*d*. Old buildings and grounds, exclusive of replacement
67. Heating, lighting, plumbing, and electrical
67*a*. Furniture
67*b*. Instructional apparatus
67*c*. Other equipment
68. Other capital outlay
Total Expenditures in Capital Outlay
Total Payments for the Year
Balances at the Close of the Year
Total Payment and Balances

Those who are interested in securing a copy of this form should write to the Statistical Division of the State Department of Education of New York.

Income receipts should also be carefully classified. The following is suggested:

RECEIPTS

(Include all departments)

1. Balance on hand at close of fiscal year
2. Public money from the Council for salaries and supplies. (This may be itemized and classified to whatever degree feasible)

3. Amount deducted from teachers' wages for teachers' retirement fund
4. Quota apportioned by the federal government for
    - Vocational education
    - School gardening
    - Other activities
5. Quota apportioned by the state for
    - Instruction
        - General academic
        - Vocational
        - Physical education
        - Teachers' training class
        - Agricultural schools
    - Supplies
        - Vocational
        - Visual instruction
        - School gardens
        - Libraries
        - Reproductions of art
6. City Revenues from
    - Tuition from non-resident pupils
    - Sale of articles manufactured by pupils in vocational schools
    - Refunds for lost or mutilated textbooks
    - Forfeits of registration fees
    - Receipts from conducting school luncheons
    - Rents
    - Insurance
    - Other items
7. Amount received during the year from the sale of bonds
8. From all other sources not mentioned above

    TOTAL RECEIPTS

Better accounting methods lead to the preparation of a better annual budget and a better annual report of the superintendent. With such a system of keeping records the superintendent may report to the board of education at any time the per pupil cost for any form of service or supply and the per building cost of any item of maintenance or upkeep and may check wastes wherever found. The board of education in turn may determine the most effective and the most economical units of organization and administration for the schools.

It is recommended that such a system of keeping financial records should be installed in every city, and from such records clear, accurate statements should be prepared, similar to bank statements, and given to the community at least once a year, so that the people, the taxpayers, the parents of the children (for schools are for the children), may know how the school budget is expended by the board of education.

In conclusion, "let us stop wastage, extravagance, and poor administration in school accounting, make use of the systems available, help to improve them, and thereby aid this glorious and great country of ours in the prosecution of this war, which will bring us victory, and so do our bit as school men in making the 'world safe for democracy.'"

WAR POLICIES FOR SCHOOLS

GEORGE W. GERWIG, SECRETARY, BOARD OF PUBLIC EDUCATION, PITTSBURGH, PA.

In order to determine wise war policies we should first agree upon our urgent needs and the order of their importance. On the administrative side the most urgent need of the schools during and after the war will be for money. On the educational side the most vital need will be for a quick and sure method of abolishing adult illiteracy and teaching everyone English.

Our war policies, therefore, should promptly meet these prime needs. We should adopt a financial war policy which will guarantee abundant funds for education and an educational war policy which will make illiteracy in America impossible. Neither of these problems is an easy one to solve.

This is no time to waste a penny or to spend it except for essentials. No one could be more loyal than the schoolmasters have been in dedicating every possible dollar to the first line of defense. But we realize, as every nation in the war does, that education is the second line of defense, and that the second line must be held as well as the first. It is the bounden duty of the nation to furnish, thru the cooperation of all, adequate training for the welfare of all. To neglect this is national bankruptcy as well as national suicide.

Personal, municipal, school, state, and national expenditures are increasing at a rate absolutely unheard of in the past. The demands in every department of life increase in speed and in urgency far faster than the apparent ability to meet them. Municipalities everywhere are facing rapidly climbing expenditures, with fixt tax-levying limits, with limited bonding capacity, with a certainty that interest must be paid and that bonds must be redeemed. Nations are all borrowing to the verge of bankruptcy. The vicious circle of increasing costs and increasing expenditures continues, the situation apparently getting worse and worse.

Fortunately, however, several considerations come to the rescue, each of which is a tremendous tonic. In the first place, America is recognizing at last that the things we are fighting for are of infinitely greater value than any possible cost may be, and that all our other possessions would be as dust and ashes without our ancient ideals of liberty. In the second place, we see that individually and nationally we have been criminally wasteful and extravagant, and that we can readily, without serious discomfort, indeed with positive benefit to health, save enough to share generously with our less fortunate neighbors, and each have abundance. In the third place, and most important of all, we are beginning to recognize that we are developing and releasing unknown and untold resources of cooperative power and energy, and that, as William James tried to teach us long ago, and a greater Teacher centuries before, there are untapt reservoirs, abundant for

every need of mankind, as exhaustless as the widow's cruse of oil, if only used for unselfish service.

We have entered upon a new and tremendously interesting experiment into the wider meaning and content of democracy—the life of all the people, thru the cooperation of all, for the welfare of all. There have been abundant instances in the past in which certain sections of the people have enjoyed a life which was ideal, except in its selfishness. There have been many instances in which certain groups have cooperated among themselves with almost faultless efficiency, but for the benefit of the preferred group. It remains for the patriots of our day to dedicate in their turn their lives, their fortunes, their sacred honor, to the tremendously interesting experiment of working out, in a manner both ideal and practical, a scheme of life for all, thru the cooperation of all, for the welfare of all.

The school and a national system of education are the best mediums. For the old Greek negative motto, "Nothing too much," we will substitute the American positive constructive motto, "Enough for everybody." We must recognize that in a democracy a tax is not a burden imposed upon an unwilling people by a tyrant, but a cooperative investment of a fair portion of the material assets of a people, set aside as a permanent, dividend-paying investment for the betterment of the life of the whole people. The schools are the best asset, the best advertisement, the best dividend-producing investment any community can have.

Every schoolmaster should go after adult illiteracy with the same energy and singleness of purpose with which the Dutch woman in the advertisement goes after dirt. Americanization is in no sense a narrow term. It involves a wealth and breadth of ideals which represent the best that the experience and wisdom of the ages have taught mankind. Liberty does not absolutely depend for its life upon literacy, but it does almost depend on literacy for its preservation. It is intolerable that 15 per cent of the adult population of many portions of the United States should be illiterate. Every individual case should be carefully studied. Every latent possible incentive to study English must be aroused. The strongest, or a group of the strongest, should be enlisted.

One or more of the following methods of approach should be tried:

1. Thru the children at home. The child may be made the medium for bringing:
   a) The desire to know English.
   b) The material for learning in schoolbooks and simple story-books.
2. Schools, day, evening, or special, with:
   a) The usual academic instruction.
   b) Action illustrations.
   c) Picture instruction.
3. Church instruction, including:
   a) Parochial schools.

b) Other forms of language training, particularly familiar portions of the Bible or Prayer Book in English, or of religious songs.

4. Newspapers:
   a) In English.
   b) In the native tongue.
   c) Each in parallel columns.
5. Trade and industry devices:
   a) A fair requirement of some knowledge of English, or at least a willingness to learn, as a condition of securing employment.
   b) Definite instruction in shop or factory, preferably part at least on the employers' time and under practical teachers who focus on the things needed first.
   c) A fair requirement of proficiency or willingness to learn as a condition of promotion or increase in wages.
6. Government stimulation or control:
   a) English as a fundamental requirement for citizenship.
   b) A fair presentation of the advantages of becoming a citizen and the disadvantages of not becoming one.
7. Social settlements. Encouragement and aid in acquiring not only the English language but also American ideals of life.
8. Fraternal organizations. Aid in language and in American ideals thru ritualistic, fraternal, and beneficial work of all kinds.
9. Sports and sporting pages. American games, particularly baseball and football, are among the most potent agencies, not only for teaching English, but also for teaching the American ideals of individual skill, initiative, team work, and fair play.
10. Training for girls and women. In their recreation and in their work there are abundant opportunities for instruction in English and in American ideals of costume, of deportment, of the American home, and of the ideal relation between American men and women.

Preparedness is a school problem. A democracy is doomed to destruction which consents to remain inefficient. A nation's destiny is finally fixt by its training. Nations are learning the art of imbuing their people with certain chosen national ideals. The important thing is the type of ideals to be instilled. The supreme function of the schools is to discover, clarify, and develop high ideals, as well as to find and train the ability to convert htese ideals into realities.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF BOARDS OF EDUCATION

MRS. CHARLES A PERKINS, KNOXVILLE, TENN.

Can we overestimate the responsibility of boards of education, inasmuch as they are the ones who primarily are deciding the destiny of the millions of children in America today?

The petty politician and the uninterested man should find no place on a board of education. These places should be given to the best and most competent citizens that the community affords. It is claimed that these places should be filled by appointment, and the appointment should be on a non-partisan basis in order that the best available men and women may be induced to assume the responsibility of board service. Each member should feel that he represents the city as a whole, and not any particular part of it. He should visit the schools that he may see for himself the work that is being done. Then he will not be obliged to pass perfunctorily upon the work of teachers but can give his own personal stamp of approval.

The school system is one great business institution where the directors must understand the workings and the work accomplisht, and a well-informed, interested board member is a positive and potent factor in the system. Therefore we believe that the board member should give considerable time and attention to school matters.

Remembering the vast sums expended on school buildings, the board members should see to it that these buildings represent a fine public taste, a noble public spirit, and a general refinement. Simple architecture, good lines, and harmonious colors cost no more than poor architecture, bad lines, and ugly colors. Board members should see to it that these public buildings are so constructed, heated, ventilated, and furnisht as to be conducive and not detrimental to the health of the children who occupy them for six hours a day and two hundred days a year.

In these momentous days we must give heed to the call to arms, in order that we may repel the foe that would impose autocracy upon the world. Our boards of education must also heed the call to arms along educational lines that they may do their part in overcoming the foe of ignorance that is threatening our land.

In order that we may help eradicate illiteracy in this country boards of education should see to it that compulsory-education laws are enforced, that truant officers are efficient, and that night schools are opened for those boys and girls, and for those men and women who, on account of being obliged to work, have been deprived of even the rudiments of education. As a nation we have five and one-half millions who cannot read or write the English language, and these are not all of foreign birth. A million and a half are native born. More than ten million men and women of the United States cannot read well enough to read a newspaper or the Constitution and laws of the state or of the United States, nor can they read well enough to enable them to keep personal or business accounts intelligently. Our federal government is spending millions of dollars in sending to the people in the rural districts information about farming and other rural industries. Yet over 10 per cent of the country people in 1910 could not read or write a word, and as many more could not read well enough to read a bulletin on agriculture or a farm paper.

Most important of all just now is the fact that an illiterate man does not make a good soldier. We are drafting into our Army men who cannot understand the orders that are given them to read, and our officers say that our man power is deficient because our education is inefficient. Until last April the regular Army would not enlist illiterates, yet in the first draft between thirty and forty thousand illiterates were brought into the Army, and approximately as many near-illiterates. It takes much more time to train them, and in many things they are permanently deficient. If their inefficiency amounts to only 25 per cent, then the United States Army raised by this draft is weakened by the equivalent of the loss of ten thousand effective men. The additional cost of training these men must be many hundreds of thousands of dollars, and their lack of efficiency in the battle line is incalculable.

In 1904 among the army recruits of Great Britain there was 1 per cent who could not read or write. Among the army recruits of France there were 14.7 per cent, while among the army recruits of Germany there were only 0.04 of 1 per cent who were illiterate. Among the men in America first drafted for this war there were between thirty and forty thousand illiterates.

It has been said that Pestalozzi, the great German educator, won the Franco-Prussian War in 1870. Today it may be claimed that the schoolmasters of Germany are responsible for whatever success has been accorded the German arms. The war has caused an immense awakening among the allied nations. President Wilson has said "that next to caring for the soldiers in the trenches we must care for the children at home. If we are to win this war and look out for the after-results, we must maintain our schools at their very highest efficiency." The war has aroused England, France, and America to a consciousness of the deficiency in their educational systems, as compared with that of Germany. In the summer of 1916 it was declared in the English House of Lords that a "living national system of education must be organized if the nation is to maintain its position." The people of England are thoroly alive to the absolute necessity of better educational training for the youth of their country. And today, in England and Scotland, bills are pending for the continuation system of education, or the requirement on the part of every employer to compel his employes to go to school a part of the time until they are eighteen years of age. In spite of her limited finances, England is showing her desire for better schools, and superior teachers by appropriating more money for education this year than ever before.

Boards of education should see to it that our children receive cultivation of the hand and the eye, together with the improvement of the mind. By industrial education we are fitting the child for practical duties, drawing to the surface some latent talent, or forming his taste for that which may prove to be his life-work.

In our schools thousands of children leave at the end of the fifth grade, and, of those who continue, 50 per cent never graduate from the high school. The majority of those who leave go to work, but not in a way or along lines for which they have received any special training. If they could have obtained such training, then their wage-earning capacity would have been greatly increast. One cause of Germany's great material advance during the last quarter of a century has been because of her trade schools, which dot the country. Before the war in Bavaria alone there were more trade schools than in all the United States. In the German Empire, where a boy is obliged to attend school until he is fifteen years of age, provision is made for the vocational training of every child who desires it. They have a system that has made for efficiency among that people and has provided an army of trained workmen who have flooded the markets of the world with German-made articles. We are not, however, going to be dependent upon German workmen, or German wares. We want American chemists, engineers, and workmen who will show sufficient skill and research ability to submerge or put down and out of sight forever the "made in Germany" slogan that has obsest the world for the last decade. And in order to do this our boards of education must see to it that we have schools which will produce these artisans and skilled mechanics.

The full efficiency of the human mechanism cannot be obtained unless all the parts are in good working order. More and more are school boards everywhere giving the child's body the first consideration instead of the last. According to Provost Marshal General Crowder a majority of the physical disabilities of the 29 per cent of men rejected in the selective draft could have been prevented in childhood. Do you think that our school children do not need some kind of medical inspection, with followup care by nurses, to prevent epidemics of scarlet fever and other juvenile diseases?

Boards of Education should try to obtain practical, well-trained teachers, and should then be willing to give them due compensation. The present times require practical, trained men and women. The ideal of education demanded today is a scheme of study which shall help us win the war, fit the youth of this land for the changed condition after peace comes, and prepare them for the responsibilities of life—and the day of attaining this largely devolves upon boards of education.

DEPARTMENT OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—Sara H. Fahey, teacher of English, Seward Park School.....New York, N.Y.
Vice-President—Viola Ortschild, grade teacher, Cauch School.....Portland, Ore.
Secretary—Mary V. Donaghue, grade teacher, Stewart School.....Chicago, Ill.

FIRST SESSION—Tuesday Afternoon, July 2

The meeting was called to order by President Sara H. Fahey at two o'clock in the Oakland M.E. Church auditorium.

After singing patriotic songs, led by Bertha Baker, South Hills High School, Pittsburgh, Pa., the following program was presented on the topic "Relation of Democracy in Education to Democracy in Government":

"The Training of Teachers as a Factor in Establishing Professional Standards"—Sara H. Fahey, New York, N.Y.

"The Status of the Classroom Teacher"—W. C. Bagley, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

SECOND SESSION—Wednesday Forenoon, July 3

The following program was presented:

"Department Problems of the Immediate Present—A Look Ahead"—Wm. M. Davidson, superintendent of schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"Causes of the Present Shortage of Teachers"—Isabel A. Ennis, Brooklyn, N.Y.; Claire McWilliams, Pittsburgh, Pa.; Viola Ortschild, Portland, Ore.

The following resolutions were offered by Sara H. Fahey, of New York City, seconded by J. T. Rorer, of Philadelphia, and unanimously past:

Resolved, That the Department of Classroom Teachers, National Education Association, undertake at once a nation-wide campaign for increast salaries for teachers, in order to avert the most serious menace that public education in the United States has ever had to meet, namely, an alarming shortage in the teaching force.

Resolved, That the Department of Classroom Teachers appeal to the federal government to appropriate sufficient funds to provide such salaries for teachers as will enable boards of education to retain able teachers who are daily being withdrawn from the profession for more lucrative positions in the business world.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS AS A FACTOR IN ESTABLISHING PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS

SARA H. FAHEY, PRESIDENT, DEPARTMENT OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS, NEW YORK, N.Y.

Two words of highest importance in our speech of today are "conservation" and "cooperation," for they express the new spirit of progress that is actuating modern life. We are beginning to realize too that in the last analysis the real wealth of the nation, the hope of democracy, lies in what the people are able to make of themselves. Just to that degree to which their strength of body and of character is increast is the productive efficiency of the nation increast.

In times gone by education had to do with conserving the storehouse of knowledge from past ages. Today it has to do more largely with developing and conserving the powers of the individual child. If in the process of training a child loses his eyesight or his hearing we denounce the system that destroyed those functions. Yet year after year we tolerate, with provoking calmness, teaching conditions and systems of teaching that result in shattered nerves for both teacher and child.

Patriotism demands today that we rid ourselves of the uselessly burdensome in teaching, particularly when so many cities and states are deploring the lack of funds with which properly to remunerate their teachers. One way to increase salaries is to make more pleasurable the conditions under which work is done.

We look to the training school to help establish professional standards. It must not be satisfied to hold an insignificant place in the educational world. The teacher must get from it a vision of the power and efficiency that constitute enlightened manhood and womanhood.

During the last two decades a notable advance has been made in pedagogic methods along scientific and industrial lines, but in the fundamentals we are still teaching largely thru the printed page. We have made a fetish of books. We have become a reading rather than a thinking people. This worship of the printed page develops certain tendencies in teachers which hamper their efficiency and destroy the *esprit de corps* that ought to obtain among professional workers.

There is the habit of undue respect for unreasoned authority in intellectual matters. Teachers form the habit of constantly quoting people or books as authority for what they think. They lack confidence in their own ability to think. In a democracy this is not a desirable state of mind for those who are to train the youth of the land. Another weakness is shown in the attitude toward the field of knowledge. Altho today every scholar knows that the field is limitless, the teacher feels embarrast,

ashamed, to find herself lacking in any line. She must give the appearance of knowing, which leads to "bluffing." This tendency to be authoritative in matters of which we know little breeds camouflage and intellectual dishonesty. Other people in the educational system may, with impunity, confess their ignorance, nay, even wax jocose over their errors, but the conventional attitude of school officials toward the teacher is such that she assumes that she is to be a lexicon. Again, these are not desirable traits for a teacher of the young people who are to be the citizens of the democracy of the future. Intellectual trickery, the ability to pass examinations rather than to master the subject in hand, becomes the goal to be attained.

The lack of professional standards, the lack of *esprit de corps*, is more exhausting to the true teacher than even the conflict between her small salary and the high cost of living.

Among teachers as a body there is a notable lack of knowledge of their own legal rights. They will endure the domineering of a certain type of school official, or of parents, without so much as a protest, yet their spirits are crusht by this sort of thing, and the happiness is taken out of their work. Anyone in authority who needlessly adds to the burdens of teachers in this year of overwork and underpayment ought to be tabooed as flagrantly unpatriotic.

War forces people to solve problems that in time of peace drag on from generation to generation. Now, as never before, teachers are beginning to see that patriotism is not blind subserviency but discriminating loyalty, and they are glad to do battle for the flag of America, because it stands for ideals the maintenance of which is essential for the freedom of the world.

THE STATUS OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

W. C. BAGLEY, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N.Y.

From the point of view of the internal organization of the American educational system the most unsatisfactory situation today is that which is represented by the anomalous status—or perhaps better, the lack of status—of the classroom teacher. In spite of the fundamental educational axiom that the critical and vital element in every school is the teacher, in spite of the unction with which the work of the teacher is lauded and the tremendous responsibility of the teacher emphasized, it still remains true that the actual work of teaching in this country neither offers the opportunities nor provides the conditions of a real career. Educational work, it is true, affords opportunities for careers of various types—for careers in administration, careers in scholarship, careers even in politics—but the basic act of education which is represented by the work of the classroom teacher affords

no such opportunities. Here unusual success brings no unusual recognitions or rewards except as it may actually lead one away from the work of teaching into administrative and supervisory activities.

Our conception of what constitutes promotion in educational work is in itself a sad commentary upon the unprofessional status of our calling. In general the line of promotion is from rural school to graded elementary school, from lower grades to higher grades, from elementary school to high school, from high school to administration or perhaps to college teaching. And even in college and university work the effective sanctions and recognitions attach, not to teaching as such, but either to the kind of productive scholarship that finds expression in printer's ink, or again to administration. It is not too much to say that the current policy of promotion in educational work is actually backward—from the most exacting tasks to those which, while still difficult enough, really make smaller demands upon the individual.

THE "FACTORY" PLAN OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

In common with many of you in this audience I have tried to think out plans by means of which the status of the classroom teacher in the scheme of public education might be effectively recognized—plans thru which effective rewards and sanctions might come to attach to the actual work of teaching. I think that, upon the whole, you and I have been animated in these plans and hopes by purely unselfish motives. We find certain satisfactions in our work—satisfactions that often overtop any material rewards of which we can conceive—but this, after all, does not solve the problem. The great majority of our public-school teachers are transient, immature, and untrained. They do not look upon teaching as a permanent career. They do not prepare themselves adequately for it. They do not remain in the service long enough to acquire anything more than an amateur's conception of its problems, its methods, its technique, and its responsibilities. Those who enter it as a permanent calling are continually tempted to seek promotion that takes them away from the actual, vital contact with pupils and students. The great, and just now the very momentous, problem of getting the next generation ready for its serious responsibilities is being accomplisht more and more upon the factory plan. I mean by this very frankly that the status of the classroom teacher is becoming more and more akin to that of the "hands" in a factory, working under foremen and superintendents who assume the real responsibility. More and more frequently too these foremen and superintendents in our schools are being recruited from a group which has never served an apprenticeship in the actual work of teaching boys and girls.

Schools, however, cannot be operated on the factory plan except at the peril of the vital and fundamental function that they must discharge. We are wont to think of teaching as an applied science. It is the fashion to believe that general principles analogous to those that govern the processes

of agriculture and engineering can be workt out and reduced to simple rules that anyone can apply under competent direction, and the plain corollary of this thesis is that the teacher may be considered as an artisan, analogous in every essential way to the carpenter and the bricklayer and the plumber who take the plans and specifications workt out by the architect and the construction engineer and realize them in actual material production.

I have all sympathy with the scientific study of educational problems up to this point, but here I balk. Teaching is only in part an applied science. The analogy with agriculture and engineering is mischievously misleading, once it has been carried beyond a relatively narrow range of application. The alliance of teaching is rather with the fine arts than with the applied sciences, The effective teacher must be an artist rather than an artisan.

ADMINISTRATION V. EDUCATIONAL POLICY

A final suggestion, thoroly practicable, is designed primarily to offset the insidious tendency that I have noted—the tendency to operate the modern public school on the factory plan. There is a very great difficulty to overcome here. In so far as administrative matters are concerned, there must be in every large educational institution, or system of institutions, a hierarchy of authority and responsibility. Administratively we must have our foremen and our superintendents; but this is not at all inconsistent with delegating to the teachers as such a large measure of collective responsibility for what may be called the educational policies of the school or the school system. This distinction between purely *administrative* matters on the one hand and *educational policies* on the other has been workt out most admirably in certain of the colleges and universities that are supported at public expense. The lay boards of trustees are responsible to the people for the proper expenditure of the people's money, but these boards, if they are intelligent, depend almost entirely upon professional judgment for educational policies. In the colleges that I refer to these educational policies are always initiated by the faculties, which comprise usually only the mature and permanent teachers. The president of the institution, while administratively the agent of the board, is educationally not the autocratic boss but rather the cooperating leader of the faculty.

I believe that a similar plan is thoroly practicable in a high school or in a complete school system, assuming in each case that the teaching staff is mature, permanent, and well trained. Educational policies concerning the course of study, the adoption of textbooks, the adjustment of the program, the provisions for exceptional pupils of all types, and similar matters may well be determined either by the teaching staff acting as a unit, or by a representative "senate" of teachers elected by the teachers themselves. That the administrative and supervisory officers will exercise a leadership is both inevitable and proper, but leadership in these educational matters should be entirely without the authority of coercion or even

the suggestion of such authority. The recommendations of the teachers must, of course, be subject to the approval of the board representing the the people, but they should not be subject to an individual administrative veto.

ADEQUATE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

It should go without saying that the permanent betterment of the classroom teacher's status is absolutely dependent upon far better facilities for the professional preparation of teachers. It is, after all, the dead weight of the transient, immature, and untrained majority of our teaching population that forms the heaviest handicap to educational efficiency and progress. With more than half of the nation's children under teachers who have had absolutely no adequate preparation for their serious responsibilities, teachers who themselves are scarcely more than boys and girls at work, there can be little hope of an essentially modified conception of the teacher's service. As a nation we give less attention to the preparation of teachers than does any other country of equal standing. Until this condition is corrected fundamentally we are hopelessly handicapt.

I sincerely trust that the classroom teachers as a group will aid and abet in every possible way the movement that is already on foot to raise the status of our normal schools and city training schools. This is part and parcel of your cause. Personally I am strongly in favor of federal cooperation in the support of these schools. I believe that the national government should do for these schools the same effective and stimulating service that it has done for the state agricultural colleges. I think indeed that the measure of cooperation should be even closer with the normal schools. At the present time the teachers of our public schools as a group are recruited from an economic level of the population that cannot afford to send its children to distant schools for an extended term of preparation for the work of teaching. This, I take it, is at basis the fundamental cause of our low professional standards. There is but one way out of this dilemma, and that is to place the preparation of public-school teachers upon the same basis that we have placed the training of officers for the army and navy; namely, to select candidates for the service upon a rigorous basis of merit and then to pay them a living wage so that they can afford to prepare for teaching in a way and to an extent consistent with the responsibilities that they are to assume. For the government to cooperate with the states in doing this would be to recognize in a most effective way the much-talkt-of dependence of the nation's welfare upon the public school and the significance of the teacher's service to the nation's life.

The present time is peculiarly opportune to project an extended national, perhaps even an international, movement looking toward an appropriate status of the classroom teacher. Such a movement planned and projected now and launcht full tilt immediately after the war would be thoroly in harmony with the great democratic movement which has already gained

momentum in industry and politics both here and abroad. And this larger movement itself is thoroly in harmony with the spirit and purpose of the great cause for which we are fighting.

CAUSES OF THE PRESENT SHORTAGE OF TEACHERS

ISABEL A. ENNIS, BROOKLYN, N.Y.

As a result of the world-war perhaps no greater menace faces the people of this country than the present shortage of teachers. A glance at the daily papers and at school reports, city, state, and national, reveals everywhere a shortage of present teachers and of teachers for the future. Fewer pupils are entering the high schools, and there is a decided falling off in the number of high-school pupils entering the training schools for teachers. Hundreds of experienst teachers, men and women thruout the country are resigning their positions for places in banks, in the government service, and in the various mercantile and industrial pursuits, where the responsibility is not so great and the remuneration is far greater. And why?

A pamphlet on *Teacher Shortage Reasons* by D. William Allen, Institute for Public Service of New York City, reads:

1. Salaries are too low compared with salaries in other fields, and too low compared with the high cost of living.
2. The attractions of other fields, apart from salary differences, are greater and are better advertised.
3. The training value of successful teaching as preparation for other fields is underadvertised.
4. Working conditions of schools and supervision are many times uninspiring and unagreeable, even when not disagreeable and discouraging.
5. Public and social recognition is too low [I would add, too slow].

Salaries are too low. There are nearly 800,000 teachers in the United States. There are perhaps 22,000,000 pupils. The average salary of the teachers in the United States is considerable less than $600. It is said that in Richmond, Va., there are teachers receiving less than $200 a year. Salaries should be increast. War bonuses should be given, and given immediately, to meet the increast cost of living and the competition of these various industrial, commercial, governmental, and clerical positions which are attracting some of the very good teachers from the public schools.

The public owes the teacher a duty and a recognition which it is all too slow to acknowledge and to render. When one considers the conditions of eligibility for a teacher in this ever-changing, complex civilization, classroom work is only incidental to her great work. She must fill every gap and want in the child's life except perhaps his keep, and many times she attends to that too.

Twenty-five years ago a woman could sew, do housework for herself or someone else, and she could teach; but the avenues of employment open to women today are so many and so varied that the profession of teaching is not being sought as it was in former years. Grammar-school graduates who may easily secure employment at $8, $10, or even $12 a week, with little or no responsibility, will not be drawn toward $16 or $17 a week after six years of severe training. On the walls of the Hall of the Board of Education of New York City are numerous United States government advertisements for stenographers, typewriters, clerks, etc., with salaries ranging from $900 to $1200 per year.

Much is made of the fact that the inflated salaries of these positions will not continue after the war, and that many places now filled by civilians will be given to returning soldiers. Be that as it may, the fact remains that many teachers have left the profession because they could not make ends meet on the very small pay given them in the cities in which they teach, and the United States Commissioner of Education warns us that "conditions that will follow the war will demand a higher standard of general intelligence, industrial efficiency, and civic equipment than we have yet attained." If these standards are demanded, the salary paid to the competents will not go down. In my judgment salary increases given to the teaching corps will not be withdrawn after the war.

Education is a state function; it ought to be recognized as a national duty. The United States is spending enormous sums for the education and rehabilitation of those who are fighting "to make the world safe for democracy," but it is not making certain whether these millions of dollars are actually providing for the efficient instruction of the future citizens of this country in what may be termed the "new education"—"to make democracy safe for the world." A precedent has been set by the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act, which provides for an appropriation, in conjunction with the state, to pay the increast cost of instruction thruout the United States. Instead of the United States paying half and the state paying half, should not the federal government pay the whole of it?

Some of the remedies suggested for the shortage of teachers are:

1. While this is not the time to lower standards of efficiency, circumstances warrant the same treatment being accorded to students in our high schools as to those in our military and naval academies: (*a*) rearrange the selection of the subjects; (*b*) reduce the time for the courses; (*c*) intensify the work so that the students may cover in two or three years what is now required of them in four years.

2. Reduce the time for training teachers about one half. Make the training period an intensive one and provide professional courses for teachers to pursue during the period of probation.

3. First provide, then advertise, the rewards, opportunities, and attraction of successful teaching.

4. Encourage the ablest men and women to register as teachers in training for many or any kinds of work.

5. Let down the barriers and invite the married women or any others who have left the school system to return.

6. Quoting Dr. Allen again: "Enhance the working conditions, including supervision, without waiting for salary increases and as the first and best step towards getting the needed salary increases."

7. In the final analysis perhaps the most important suggestion is: "Increase salaries, not a little, but enough to prove the intent to draw into the teaching profession the country's ablest personalities."

DEPARTMENT OF DEANS OF WOMEN

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

PITTSBURGH MEETING

OFFICERS

President—Kathryn Sisson McLean, dean of women, Ohio Wesleyan, University.....Delaware, Ohio
Vice-President—Margaret Jean Calvin.....New York, N.Y.
Secretary-Treasurer—Rhoda M. White, State College..... Pullman, Ohio
Assistant Secretary—Anna D. Blitz, dean, William Smith College, Geneva..New York, N.Y.

FIRST SESSION—Monday Afternoon, July 1, 1918

The meeting was called to order at 2:00 p.m. and greetings were extended by Florence M. Root, dean of Pennsylvania College for Women, Pittsburgh, Pa.; and Mary B. Breed, dean of Margaret Morrison Carnegie School, Pittsburgh, Pa.

The following papers were presented:

"Organization of Social Life Where There Are No Dormitories, and Housing Students under Such Conditions"—Bernice E. Sanford, dean of women, State Normal School, River Falls, Wis.

"Mobilization of Students to Assist in Household and Campus Duties"—Speaker to be announst later.

SECOND SESSION—Monday Evening, July 1, 1918

Reception to all Deans and their friends at the Margaret Morrison Carnegie School.

Music—A short program by Mrs. Arthur B. Siviter, soprano; Miss Nellie J. Bender, violinist; and Miss Mary A. Ledwith, pianist.

THIRD SESSION—Tuesday Forenoon, July 2, 1918

The meeting was called to order at 10:00 a.m., and the following program was given:

"What a President May Rightly Expect from a Dean of Women"—George S. Dick, president, State Normal School, Kearney, Nebr.

"What a Dean May Rightly Expect from a President"—Helen M. Smith, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio; Florence L. Richards, dean of women, State Normal School, Winona, Minn.

Luncheon—12:00 m. to 2:00 p.m., Twentieth Century Club.

Address—Sarah Louise Arnold, Simmons College, Boston, Mass.

FOURTH SESSION—Tuesday Afternoon, July 2, 1918

The meeting was called to order at 2:00 p.m. Mrs. Thomas J. Preston, Jr., secretary, Bureau of Patriotism thru Education, National Security League, New York, N.Y., presided, and the following papers were read:

"The Responsibility of the College in Training Leaders for the Reconstruction Work of the Future"—Thomas E. Finegan, deputy commissioner of education, Albany, N.Y.

"The College Community Life as an Opportunity for Socialization"—Mina Kerr, dean of Milwaukee-Downer College, Milwaukee, Wis.

FIFTH SESSION—Wednesday Forenoon, July 3, 1918

The regular business meeting of the Deans of Women in session at the annual meeting of the National Education Association, was held at the close of their special conference, Wednesday morning, July 3, with Dean McLean presiding.

A report of the reception of fifteen new members was heard first.

The bill amounting to $21 submitted by Dean Blitz for expenses incurred by the organization was allowed by vote of the assembly.

The report from the Conference of Deans of Women from the Pacific Northwest was then read, and a vote was taken to the effect that a committee be appointed to look farther into the wishes of the Northwest branch, and that final action be taken in Chicago at the time of the next national conference. The following were appointed members of this committee: Dean Lytton, Ellensburg, Wash.; Dean Sanford, River Falls, Wis.; Dean Carpenter, University of Tennessee.

The report of the Committee on Resolutions was heard, and a vote was taken to accept the resolutions read.

The assembly exprest its desire that Dean Blitz write Miss Arnold that the Department of Deans of Women wishes to assure the Department of Food Administration of its interest in every phase of its activity and of its entire willingness to cooperate with the Department in all its efforts to make better adjustments in the interests of the world's food supply.

After a brief discussion of some features of the constitution as submitted by the Constitution Committee, it was the vote of the assembly that individual and careful consideration be given this tentative constitution, and that final action be deferred until the February meeting.

A motion was made and carried that a Press Committee be appointed by the chair in order that more careful consideration may be given to those reports from the conference which should be given publication. Dean Kerr, of Milwaukee-Downer College, and Dean Sawyer, of Western College of Women, were appointed.

Dean Sanford then submitted the report of the nominating committee. It was voted to accept the report and the following became officers for the ensuing year:

President—Dean McLean, Delaware, Ohio
Vice-President—Dean Johnson, Columbia, Mo.
Secretary—Dean Blitz, Geneva, N.Y.
Treasurer—Dean Richards, Winona, Minn.

Then followed an informal discussion by the members concerning questions of importance and interest which might profitably be considered in outlining a program for the February meeting. Some suggestions were as follows:

"On what committees do deans serve, and on what ones should they serve?"
"Would it not be well to enlist the interest of the deans of liberal arts as well as the presidents in the various activities of the deans of women?"

Kathryn S. McLean, *President*
Mabel Lytton, *Secretary pro tem*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

ORGANIZATION OF SOCIAL LIFE WHERE THERE ARE NO DORMITORIES, AND HOUSING STUDENTS UNDER SUCH CONDITIONS

BERNICE E. SANFORD, DEAN OF WOMEN, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, RIVER FALLS, WIS.

As the large groups of students come surging into the college and norma towns and cities each fall, the organization of the social life of these students and the housing of them constitute one of the largest problems for administrative officers. These young people come full of enthusiasm, eagerness, and good spirits, full of a new sense of liberty—all of which must be capitalized for good. For another group—the unsocial students—the adapting of oneself to new living conditions is an untried experience, and it is here again that the tested and clearly defined policy of the faculty advisors and administrative officers can smooth the hard places in student life.

In institutions where there are dormitories a standard for the kind and cost of living and also social standards may be set by the dormitory. Where there are no halls of residence the problem is quite different. Regulations pertaining to the life of the girls while away from the school, such as have grown up gradually from the experiences of many other students, may be formulated by the dean of women working with the faculty committee. These regulations which students are askt to observe can be interpreted to them and discust with them in such a way that they will appreciate the point of view of advisors and administrators. However, this constitutes a year's task as carried on in assembly talks, in individual conferences, and in home calls. In a like manner the landladies must know of the desires and social standards of the school. Much can be accomplisht by two or more meetings of landladies each year, where these social standards and matters of supervision and guidance may be studied and discust, by the dean of women calling at the lodging-places for students, and by frequent correspondence.

The lodging-houses are in no way connected with the school save thru the relation of their landladies to the dean of women. The arrangements are usually made between landladies and parents or students, and the school cannot assume responsibility for such arrangements. However, it may be required that certain standards be met, and inspection of these houses should be made at least once a year.

It is advantageous that parents should know of these school standards and cooperate with school authorities in adhering to them. Early in the year a bulletin setting forth these social standards, including the regulations which the students are askt to observe, and also inviting the interest and

cooperation of parents will create a harmonious situation out of which excellent team work may develop.

A school whose numbers are such as to permit a daily convocation, or at least a frequent one, has at its disposal a valuable and effective agency for assimilating the new students into the student body and the school and for letting these students know what their Alma Mater expects of them. At some meetings both young men and young women may be present; here large matters of student ethics and discussions of the various aspects of college life may be considered. At other meetings the dean of women and presidents of the more important girls' organizations may address the girls. In this way the larger ideals of the community, so far as women are concerned, may be emphasized.

Another way in which the scattered students of a non-dormitory school may be toucht and helpt is by a student council made up of the heads of the different organizations, meeting with the dean of women from four to six times a year for conference on student affairs. When the members of the council report to their organizations the net results of such meetings, nearly all of the women students have been reacht.

A larger measure of student self-government can be incorporated in the social life of the students by organizing them into communities and electing a representative from each group to constitute a council. Each community is made up of girls rooming in a specific area of the city—the numbers ranging from twenty to forty in each group. These individual groups meet for get-acquainted and social times, for consideration of all-campus projects and interests, and for discussion of social standards and regulations. The representatives from these communities will take the discussions and reports from the council meetings to their various groups, and thus again all the students are reacht.

When one considers the social life of the women students in the broader sense—in the sense of bringing to each young woman a vital consciousness of her membership in the different social groups with which her life is concerned, whether it be the family, the school, or the state—there the school has its most vital task. All the special organizations lend themselves to this task, and in their ranks is the social sense in its larger meaning developt.

The social functions for entertainment may be carried on jointly by social committees of each organization and a social committee of the faculty, of which the dean of women may well be chairman. The faculty committee formulates the general social policy of the school, while the students plan and work out the details of the functions.

At all times the social life of the students must be subordinated to the demands of the curriculum, it must be raised above the standard of the outside world, and it should always aim to produce better men and women. Any scheme which will aid in these purposes is worth trying.

This matter of lodging students outside of dormitories is regulated largely by the laws of supply and demand. The number of students to be cared for, the size and character of the city, and the school traditions enter so largely into the transaction that each school is a problem unto itself to be studied and solved in the light of its own conditions.

WHAT A PRESIDENT MAY RIGHTLY EXPECT FROM A DEAN OF WOMEN

GEORGE S. DICK, PRESIDENT, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, KEARNEY, NEB.

What a president may expect from a dean of women depends entirely upon whom the president has selected for this position—upon her natural and acquired qualifications. Since she is a human being, she can be expected to render service only in proportion to her natural and acquired ability. The position is one of the greatest importance, most inspiring and far-reaching when well filled, but one that may cause the greatest disturbance, friction, and may even be a menace to the best interests of the college if not well filled.

The real dean of women is just coming to be recognized for what she is able to do under fair surroundings and reasonable opportunity and support. No line of college service is rising more rapidly, advancing more steadily than is this, owing to the increasing number of well-prepared, devoted, inspiring women who have chosen this line, or who have been chosen for this almost sacred service.

Since the position is now establisht and universally recognized, and since the educated, trained, thoroly competent dean may be secured for the most difficult, most important of these places, a proportional rise is seen and will continue to be noted in the quality and effectiveness of influence rendered in this field of unlimited service—limited only by human devotion and endurance on one side and susceptibility of influence on the other.

As in every other line of work, not every person of proper age, weight, height, and dress can make a dean of women. She must be strong and well, with plenty of bone and muscle, and not too many nerves. Physical strength is necessary to endure the strain of perplexing daily problems that continue to rise for solution. She must have age sufficient for judgment and discretion, yet she must not be so old as to lack sympathy with young people or to forget that she too was once young and even susceptible to attention from proper young men. Perhaps it is well that she still be not entirely averse to helpful associations with men as well as with women.

She is expected to dress with becoming taste and judgment and to comply with sane manners and customs of the day. In all this, both in

and out of school, she must do, say, and be what she may wish our girls to do, say, and become.

Intellectually she must be the peer in study and training of any other member of the faculty. If she is to be a guide to young people in their college years, she herself must have traveled successfully this way that she may be a safe pilot and a wise counselor.

She must be ready to assist in the making of courses of study, be they in the physical, mental, moral, spiritual, social, or vocational field, suitable for young women. Not that she must be a specialist in each of these lines, but she should be familiar with good studentship with a proper balance of work and recreation, study and entertainment. She will not attempt to dictate courses of study, but will be heard in discussion of what may be too much or too little, suitable or unsuitable, for young women of college age with varying abilities. In order to render this service she must be a woman of broad, liberal education and have that rare experience of a thoro, successful classroom teacher.

In addition to the deep interest in the physical well-being of the student and the ability to assist in the guidance of the intellectual life, she is the natural guide, if not the real leader, in the social activities of the school. If the institution be coeducational, she becomes a real influence in the social life of the young men as well as that of the young women, as it is impossible and undesirable to separate the naturally mutual interests of all the suitable social activities of the one from those of the other.

In communities where it is necessary to house the young women in private homes, she knows conditions and regulates affairs much more easily and efficiently if she has full control of house inspection and the approval of assignment and change of location. Supported by faculty rules and regulations, she is enabled to control the conditions under which students may live. In connection with this duty she prefers to have control of employment for young women who must earn a part or all of their support while in college.

We have said that the dean of women should be a successful teacher. Many go farther and say that she should continue to teach. If the school is large, it is better that she give time to the care of and personal interest in every girl than that she give so much time to knowing a few girls in some one department of a liberal-arts course. Her duties are too many and too arduous for her to be able to keep up with the development of a growing department and also be up to date in her special line. If she has time and ability to do it well, her line of teaching service should be that which would bring her into close association with a greater number of the young women thru lectures, conferences, study, and readings along lines of special interest and real help to women. It would seem that such study and help as this is of greater value and more vital and far-reaching in its influence than

what teaching she might be able to do in some one department, either as head or associate professor.

The president may reasonably expect complete and sympathetic cooperation in everything that may affect the general policy of the institution. As he stands ever ready to carry the heavy end, to do the difficult thing, to discharge the disagreeable duty in line of discipline, mild or severe, if need be, he reasonably expects a frank and clear understanding of policies that the dean may be endeavoring to establish or carry out. He should be consulted early, that the suggestions of the "ounce of prevention" may be considered before the "pound of cure" is necessary. Counsel is expected on means of management and control or of executing rules and regulations, and the dean must not be left to meet alone cases of serious or final discipline. Of untold value and usefulness is the nobility of real culture in the heart of a true woman, her genuineness of purpose, with a vision of what she may reasonably attempt to accomplish as she impresses upon the young lives of future women and men her own ideals of a life in the making in preparation for daily service to others. This is a part of what a president may expect from the right woman in a position of dean of women in a teachers' college or normal school.

WHAT THE DEAN MAY RIGHTLY EXPECT FROM THE PRESIDENT

HELEN M. SMITH, DEAN OF WOMEN, WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY, CLEVELAND, OHIO

The duties and responsibilities of deans are so diverse and the consequent needs so unlike that it is rather difficult to state just what a dean may rightly expect from her president. The dean of a separate college for women finds herself confronted with a multiplicity of problems of entrance credits, of curriculum, of student activities, and of executive and administrative action that may not trouble the dean of women of a coeducational institution; and the dean of a college in a coordinate educational system may be concerned with interrelations of colleges in the university that neither of the deans before mentioned realizes. On the other hand, the dean of a coeducational college is concerned with questions of social relationships that other deans may not know.

In all this diversity of needs, have deans any rights in common? I think they have.

With such a chance as this, one could not afford to miss the opportunity of making an ideal president and, doubtless, as he is created each dean may discover the likeness of her superior.

The president may have been wholly or partially responsible for putting the dean in her place. Because he is so busy he must needs delegate a number of responsibilities to her, and, once delegated, the dean has a right

to expect the president's confidence that she will perform her duties conscientiously and efficiently. If she is expected to judge the entrance certificates her judgment should be final. If her work includes the housing problem, she should be expected to make arrangements and decisions and to take the consequences that may result, without involving the president. And if certain questions of student discipline are supposed to be within her realm of decision, the students' appeal to the president should result in the return of the question to the dean. She may, and doubtless will, sometimes make mistakes—even as a president—but she has a right to expect that he will get his information about a question in point from her, and that he will confer with her as to the best way to proceed in the matter under discussion. If she is not given this confidence on the part of the president, and the consequent crippling of her authority results, the effect upon her and upon the college is unwholesome.

Again, if a large measure of confidence is given her she is encouraged to take a leading place in the question of women's education. In the ever-changing ideas of what women need and should have in their education to keep pace with the increasingly varied and widened fields which they enter, the dean of women must be more and more alert and profound. She should rightly expect the president to allow her freedom in discussion of these problems and as much freedom in action in bringing about changes as the policy of the institution will allow.

It scarcely seems reasonable to expect it, but it helps over many rough places and often saves the situation and the people concerned if the president has a sense of humor. Even a spark of it is not to be scorned, and a greater amount of it is a god-send.

Perhaps it is not right to expect patience on the part of the president. It is, however, a quality that is often required of presidents as well as of deans. After years of service as the foremost college president in America, one president said that the most necessary quality in his office was patience.

The foregoing is meant to suggest that a sympathetic understanding of the dean, and the confidence that grows out of it, is her prime right from the president—confidence in her judgment, her integrity, and her ideals.

A second right that the dean may expect from the president is protection. If the dean has entire or partial charge of admissions and dismissals, of elections of courses, of scholarship, of curriculum, of schedule of student activities, and of student aid, and then has added to this, care for housing conditions, dormitory assignments, publicity work, vocational guidance, and a bureau of occupations, besides adjustment of relations between different parts of the university and her own social-academic relations, she is likely to become a jack of all trades and a master of none. And while one knows that the value of a dean is increast by the larger number of interests that she can understand and direct, there is nevertheless a limit to the powers of even the best of them, and the dean has a right

to expect protection from the president from an excessive number of these responsibilities.

A third right which deans may expect of presidents is, in my estimation, inspiration. While it is true that all connected with a college want it to realize its highest possibilities, yet there are times when hope lags. The dean has not the controlling power, nor has she free access to the official ear of the trustees, nor does she wish it, but if a change or a realization of aims is within a reasonable hope the inspiration to press on must come from the president, who knows the facts and can control the situation in a large degree.

The president is expected to be an expert in matters of education; that is probably why he is president. The dean has possibly not so comprehensive a view of the educational field, cannot see it from so many angles. She may therefore rightly expect the president to throw light upon many educational problems. In university life, as in any other complex life, so much lies behind the scenes, so much with which the president is conversant. Why, therefore, may not the dean look for guidance and direction from him?

If deans were askt, "Whom would you like to be if you were not the dean?" I have an idea that very few of them would answer, "The president." His is not always a straight and narrow path; it is broad and sometimes rough, and sometimes it leads to destruction. His relation to the position of dean must not be too circumscribing, nor must it be too indifferent. He should always be an inspiration.

WHAT A DEAN MAY RIGHTLY EXPECT FROM A PRESIDENT

FLORENCE L. RICHARDS, DEAN OF WOMEN, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, WINONA, MINN.

As the purpose of the institution determines the kind of man called to its presidency, so its purpose also determines the kind of woman called as its dean of women. In a teachers' college the dean of women shares with the president an appreciation of those qualities predominant in an ideal teacher; and she also has in common with him the ability to see not only the individual student needing personal help but also the students in the mass as a unit, and to work unceasingly for that unit as a whole, emphasizing no one department, no one class, but seeing as a unit all departments dovetailed, working for one purpose—to prepare successful, service-loving, patriotic teachers. Consequently, to do her work efficiently, she must receive from the president when she first joins the faculty, a clear conception of the personality of the school, what factors have made that personality, what additional features are now contributing to its success, what the president wishes especially to emphasize, what flaws he wishes her to help

eradicate, and what type of woman the state has lookt to this institution to furnish for its public schools—for in a professional school, as in all other schools, the college must produce a type of student stampt with its personality. In other words, the dean of women should be given all that preliminary information which the head of a professional firm would give to one joining the firm, to whom shall be delegated much of the responsibility of at least preserving the high standard already acquired and of taking advantage of constantly occurring new conditions to broaden the scope of the firm and to raise still higher its standard. And in these war days how essential is foresight and vision in our teachers' colleges in pointing out the signboards of the times to the trackless plain of unlimited opportunity for big teachers, in whose hands lies the future of the Republic. This preliminary information saves the dean of women time, makes clear her duties, and gives her an opportunity for original, unhindered work.

As her work as a teacher must necessarily be secondary to her work as an executive, and molder of the social standard, the president of vision will see that her academic work does not by its scope hinder her in planning and executing for the student body as a whole. At the beginning of the year, one class is all that she should teach, while she is engaged in such vital problems as seeing that organizations are getting under headway, that new students are being sympathetically lookt after by "big sisters," that all are properly housed and well cared for, that the homesick are weathering the storm, and that the landladies are sensing their responsibility to the big professional unit. In the meantime any president, upon investigation, will find that the duties of the dean of women often extend far into the night while she is gathering the new, thoughtless, irresponsible crowd into a new environment, with the proper atmosphere conducive to developing a type of womanhood which will shoulder responsibility and be equal to the biggest task on earth, the molding of little aliens, little street waifs, little embryo I.W.W.'s, into loyal English-speaking patriots, and of teaching them American customs, American manners, and American ideals.

Moreover, the president should see that the dean of women has not only time for her administrative and social work, but also a fund of money at her disposal for her work among the sick, for her social "at homes" to student groups, and for general social welfare work in the college. Worry over finance soon weakens the efficiency of the strongest.

The president, as head of a professional school, should also see the advantage to the institution in sending the dean of women to the annual meeting of superintendents with her expenses paid in whole or in part, for such opportunities assure her necessary information and inspiration to keep her work abreast of the times.

But granted that the president of a normal school takes time to explain to a dean of women the new field for her activities and that he sees that she has time and money for her best work, the dean of women is still more

exacting. She expects to find in him a capable advisor. Much of her professional information should not be shared with faculty members, as family affairs of students or the reputation of individuals are often involved. She needs advice from one who holds the viewpoint of what is best not only for the individual but for the school. She asks for candid discussion and expects cordial reception and clear, unbiast thought from a judicial mind.

The dean of women also turns to the president, as her superior officer, for any information he may possess which will help her in her work. At the beginning of each year her burden is much lightened if the president urges the members of the faculty (not the critic teachers only) to report individually to the dean of women all delinquencies, moral, mental, or social, of students, wherever those faults have been perceived—in their classes, on the streets, or in other public places—so that this information may be of help in the all-round training of young women asking for teachers' diplomas. It is amazing how a few private instructions on etiquette will transform the personality of a whole-hearted, fine young woman from absolute crudeness to genuine gentility. How many college women are allowed to depart from their universities with no effort having been made to remove such life-handicaps! When the faculty gives its services ungrudgingly, the dean of woman can then make the most of her opportunities for personal service by using often the departments of the school. Thru her suggestion certain young women go to the physical director for private conference (as they have not applied what they heard in the general lectures) on cleanliness and care of the teeth or of the nails; others go to the domestic-science department for private conference on a more becoming style of dress, hairdress, hat, etc.; others to the public-speaking department for voice training; some to the art department for special conference on combination of colors. The English teachers, after a suggestion from the dean of women, ascribe to certain girls books which they particularly need in their general reading. And so, thru the thoughtfulness of the president, the dean of women is able to use all existing media to furnish that information for which an eager student is sincerely grateful.

In these war days a president of foresight will cooperate with the dean in introducing a compulsory course on social morality which, beginning with a scientific discussion of the origin of life and ending with talks on practical problems of conduct, will help safeguard the individual and make these prospective teachers sane, wide-eyed, intelligent directors ready to implant in their pupils a wholesome view of life.

Today of all days the dean of women should find in the president one whose action is that of a fearless patriot, and one who backs her in all her community activities, for prospective teachers are influenst in the long run by example. Lip service counts for little today.

With such a president, who gives his time and influence in cooperation and encouragement, a dean of women should be able to do much in furnish-

ing as teachers for the public schools today big American women, themselves representative of American customs, American manners, and American ideals.

THE COLLEGE COMMUNITY LIFE AS AN OPPORTUNITY FOR SOCIALIZATION

MINA KERR, DEAN, MILWAUKEE-DOWNER COLLEGE, MILWAUKEE, WIS.

If a truly socialized world is to be constructed after the war, and if our universities and colleges are to be, what someone has called them, "the official training camps of the leaders of the nation," then we must ask ourselves how we shall so train our boys and girls that they may be ready to lead others aright in the future time of reconstruction. By a socialized person I mean one who has learned the art of living and working with other people, one who has learned to share both privileges and responsibilities.

There are and always will be only two ways of teaching, by instruction and by actual practice. There is undoubtedly great socializing value in the study of literature, history, sociology, ethics, and religion. Students in these subjects are taught, in some measure at least, to think in terms of other people, to understand something of the human situation in which they have to live, to take the social, national, and world-wide point of view. However, instruction in these subjects is not enough. We must teach college students, by actual practice, the business of understanding one another, giving and taking, working and living together. Is not more of the laboratory method needed here?

It seems to me there are four especial aims for which we need to seek:

1. To cultivate the power to see the other person's point of view. This is what Gilbert Chesterton calls reciprocity and declares, in his book on *The Barbarism of Berlin*, to be the greatest lack in the Germans. It is a sense of proportion, of humor, if you will, of give and take, of things as working both ways, of sympathetic or dramatic imagination. It is being able to say not only, "I'm as good as you are," but also, "you are as good as I am." There is surely abundance of opportunity on a college campus to show a student that another's will is as real as his own, that the likes and dislikes, the whims and prejudices, the ambitions and aspirations of other people are very real facts to be reckoned with.

2. To observe the fundamental and inexorable law of good-will in human relationships. As Dr. James Macdonald says, this law is as certain as the law of gravitation, and he who violates it breaks not the law but himself. The world has had enough of the "will to live," "the will to power," and "the will to self," taught by German philosophers, and the time has come to teach and practice the only kind of will that works permanently among human beings, "the will to serve."

3. To realize that every right has its reciprocal duty. Americans realize fully, certainly at least for themselves, that "all men are created equal, with inalienable *rights* to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." They have yet to learn that there is a most important corollary to this proposition, that likewise all men are created equal with inalienable *duties* to one another and to the institutions of which they are a part. Somehow Americans must learn that they cannot have rights without duties. The institutional sense has been weak in America the past decades. H. G. Wells calls it "state sense." We have been individualists. Certainly one of the things we are working for in college community life is to teach students that every right has its duty, every privilege its responsibility.

4. To understand that liberty and law are friends, not enemies. The hope of America and of every democracy, large or small, must always be in voluntary submission to self-imposed law. There can be no institution and no government without obedience, but the kind of obedience given makes human beings slaves or free men; slaves if the obedience is forst on them by external and autocratic power, free men if the obedience is given voluntarily in accord with their own reason and knowledge. I like to come back to Dean Briggs's fine expression of this great truth, "A man's freedom consists in binding himself." We need to make our students see that the binding is a necessity for happiness and success, and that freedom lies in doing one's own binding of oneself.

The various students' organizations, and preeminently the student or self-government association, afford the greatest opportunities for such socialization as we have been discussing. Here students learn to take authority as officers and to yield obedience to authority in turn; as members of an organization, to work on committees; to map out plans for a particular piece of work and carry it thru to success; to preside in good parliamentary form at a meeting; to elect officers because of qualifications for the offices, not for personal reasons; and to regard both the claims of tradition and the values of change. Gradually the members of the little republic, which a self-government association is, begin to see that by the enforcement of certain laws the reputation and welfare of all are protected, opportunity for study and rest is made possible, and everyone gains more individual freedom for happy work and relationships. They begin to see too that as citizens they can have their share of rights and privileges only if they assume their share of duties and responsibilities.

One means of increasing the knowledge of principles of community life and of getting cooperation is by a community meeting for all students. Here the interests of different student organizations are presented, all kinds of subjects are discust, changes are proposed and argued for and against, all-college events are planned for, and every possible phase of community life is given a hearing. Students feel that they know what is going on and that they have a part in it.

Two things are essential to make the most of the opportunities of the college community life—organization and guidance. The organization emphasizes the institutional element and has the value of good machinery anywhere in economy and efficiency. It must be simple, workable, and not too rigid, adapted to the place and the group of students. The guidance must somehow find the middle ground between all absence of supervision and domination, for either is equally fatal to the best community democracy. We must work with our students and not for them.

Can we not make our college community life a laboratory and practice field in the business of living together successfully?

We wish to send out from our college communities social-minded citizens, men and women self-controlled, disciplined to freedom, abounding in good-will, hospitable to new ideas, eager to serve. A certain senator was reproacht by a great minister for voting in the United States senate in support of a measure undoubtedly against the best interests of the people. "The outside pressure was so strong," said the senator. "Where were your inside braces?" askt the minister. A great deal of our work in a college community is to develop "inside braces" in our students.

DEANING IN THE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL

JANET M. PURDUE, NEW HAVEN HIGH SCHOOL, NEW HAVEN, CONN.

Within the past six or seven years there has been created, in a number of the most progressive high schools in various parts of the country, an administrative position filled by a woman whose work thus far is so unstandardized that her title varies from that of dean of women to dean of girls, adviser of girls, vice-principal, counselor, etc.

At present I am filling this kind of a position in our large New Haven high school, a coeducational institution numbering twenty-two hundred girls and eighteen hundred boys, to all of whom I am permitted to minister, the care of girls, however, being my chief province.

Our New Haven board of education has been most generous in recognizing that our adolescent girls are entitled to the especial attention of an older woman, because there arise every day delicate questions of health, as well as of conduct, which cannot suitably be discust in conference with a male principal. Mothers and fathers generally prefer to discuss their daughters' failings, indiscretions, and health problems with a sympathetic, understanding woman, and one who loves girls. Fathers come too to pour out their hearts, which are sorely tried by wayward sons, to explain domestic difficulties, or that the mother is dead and the father away from home carrying on his business while the boys drift, and to ask that the dean mother those boys with her sympathy, her advice, her admonition, and her personal interest in their marks in school. It is the personal touch which counts

with these young people, and I feel that the well-being and possibly the saving of those girls and boys, physically, mentally, and morally, depends upon the knowledge of these facts by some school officer who is empowered to use this knowledge wisely in their training, and who will endeavor to mold and direct their thoughts and ideals.

The duties of the counselor in a coeducational institution are of a more difficult character than are those in women's colleges, normal schools for women, or high schools devoted exclusively to the education of girls. It is the very complex social problem in the coeducational school which keeps the counselor constantly on the alert and has made her realize that she must clarify her ideas, define her authority, and secure definite results.

I may say that as I have studied this position its duties run a gamut of all known relations which an older woman bears toward young men and young women, from that of sympathetic counselor and friend under all conditions to that of leadership in things educational; the adjustment of courses of study to fit the individual's ability and future needs; vocational information and advice; vocational lectures; oversight of social life, both in and out of school; inspirational and ethical talks; the subject of attitude, manners, dress; personal hygiene; disciplinary cases; attendance; punctuality; scholarship aid; Junior Red Cross establishment and the care of its activities and work; athletics, etc.; conferences with parents; and study of home conditions. I also render first aid in all cases of illness or accident in the school.

I feel that the social conditions surrounding our students in the school are exceptionally good. The problem here seems easy to handle, and our students ready to cooperate with the standard held by the school. However, the outside problems are exceedingly difficult to keep in touch with at all angles. Our large school is located almost in the midst of university buildings, dormitories, etc., where there are ordinarily thirty-five hundred male students, a large modern hotel near by with its finely appointed grill room and alluring music and dancing, afternoons and evenings, as well as a splendid new theater built at the rear of the hotel and connecting with it. Does not this alone create a situation for young life as interesting as it is perilous?

Add to this the lure of the moving picture, the telephone, and the automobile, and you must realize that the high-school dean needs not only much sharpening of her wits but also a buoyant realization that she must and can master these adverse conditions.

Many times the home gives little or no support, and the dean must correct conditions and regenerate the student thru her own earnest, forceful personality. However, one can do much to win the cooperation of the home by being willing to respond to every call made upon her to talk to mothers' clubs and women's organizations in general, and I am doing this right along. It has been a wonderful assistance in my work. The influ-

ence of such talks is far-reaching. Last month I was invited to speak before the Connecticut State Congress of Mothers convention on "The Responsibility of the Home and School in Training the Adolescent." The talk has already borne fruit in three of my cases.

I want the students first of all to feel my intense personal interest in them, and thus to win their confidence and respect, so that they shall look upon me, not as primarily a disciplinary officer, but as one who would eliminate as much discipline from the school as possible by giving the pupil high pride in self-control and by setting high standards and a fine spirit for the school. This can be accomplisht by being especially thoughtful of students who are absent thru illness or bereavement; of those living in an unsettled, if not stifled, domestic atmosphere; thru special care of those who are working their way thru school, and of cases where immorality exists on the part of parents, etc. With confidence once establisht between the dean and the students, her power for good is limitless.

Students failing in subjects come under my care. The causes may be many—lack of study, lack of interest, lack of systematic study hours, or it may be that the student is pursuing the wrong course of study. All these cases must be studied and proper readjustment made.

Early dismissals from school for any reasons must not unduly multiply, and here again the dean must handle every case, and only with her signature to the printed pass form is the student allowed to go. All such dismissals are recorded in the dean's office.

All cases of accident or illness in school also come under my care, and I am usually able to doctor them successfully. This kind of work gives me valuable knowledge many times of the student's physical condition, and the opportunity to have such students properly treated.

It is also the dean's duty and privilege to plan for the girls' assemblies. Last year I planned, with the assistance of the Education Committee of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae, informational talks on vocations for girls, choosing prominent men and women as speakers. During the past year my assembly programs have been largely along patriotic and war-time lines.

In closing I would say that the dean's work in the public high school is invaluable, for boys and girls of adolescent age need not only the firm, guiding hand of the head master of the school, but also the strong, kindly, sympathetic attitude and motherly instinct of a good woman dean.

WHAT CONSTITUTES SOCIAL ETHICS

ROMIETT STEVENS, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N.Y.

Society is a factor to be reckoned with in any consideration of ethics, since it establishes the criteria of conduct. Society, with its specialized activities, its institutions, traditions, and standards, has been at work quite unconsciously for a very long time trying out, evaluating, and standardizing conduct. It has found out that certain elements of conduct have stood the test of ages, becoming transformed finally into moral sanctions, no longer open to question, while other elements of conduct, satisfactory for a time perhaps, have eventually been discarded as wholly incompatible with right living.

The ethical standards of yesterday are not the standards of today, nor can those of today become the standards of tomorrow, for as the fabric of society changes social theories and practices change. Social custom of today has cast off as unnecessary to right living such elements in the education of women as that the girl must forever remain within her domicile and never be seen by men, but has kept its belief in chastity; it has cast off the right of the father to select a husband for his daughter, but has kept its belief in monogamy; it has rejected the limitation of cultural training to a knowledge of the classics, but has retained and greatly strengthened its emphasis upon education for women, changing only the nature of the education given; it has discarded certain elements of deportment considered to be of vital importance in the training of our grandmothers, such, for example, as the curtsy of the maiden upon entering the presence of her elders, but has retained the elements of graciousness and modesty; it has discarded the training in aloofness and superiority of the mistress over the maid, but has retained the teaching of responsibility for the welfare of those who serve.

The justification of your president in asking for a discussion of this question of social ethics in a conference of deans of women is perhaps apparent. The dean of women can no longer live exclusively in the sequestered byways of an academic life; she must come out of her comfortable retreat and live close to the throbbing pulse of human action. She is no longer shielding her young people from the world—from its complexities, snares, deceptions, falsities—but she is leading them out into the very *heart* of the world, to be part of it, to help remove its snares, deceptions, falsities, and to make it a safe place for herself and for all women, especially those less well endowed than she by education and influence and health for the struggle.

I believe that everyone is aware of the fact that in all phases of education we have come to a parting of the ways. Roads that were perfectly clear and open, well defined, leading straight on across life as far as the mind

could penetrate, have been completely obliterated by those battlefields out there at the crossroads. We need just now the powers of the seer to catch the vision of what are to be the issues of greatest importance for the education of women in the changed social order that is just beyond. Lacking the power to catch the perfect vision is no excuse for not beginning at once a consideration of a few of the problems which are already claiming attention.

The first of these in importance, it seems to me, is the problem of health and hygiene. We have been content in the past to let the matter of health rest wholly with the physician and the individual. If a woman student came to the college with any form of physical handicap, the most that was to be expected of us was to safeguard her existing health and not permit her academic work—that all-important academic work—to make further inroads upon health. Is not the time near at hand when we are to say of every entering Freshman: The first duty of the college is to make her physically fit for woman's work in the world and to fix ineradicably those habits of personal hygiene that are fundamental to personal happiness and to social welfare?

If this is a vital issue—and who can question it—some immediate adjustments of curricula, methods, and social organization are called for. There must be reapportionment of time with respect to indoor and outdoor occupations; college life must be planned so that more hours per day will be spent in the open air; gymnasiums must be used for the corrective and physical development of every girl, every day, and not be reserved for the team work of the few who need it least; personal hygiene must have a place of dignity in the curriculum and be considered from the scientific side. I refer to the biological interpretation of sex hygiene, the science of eugenics, the scientific principles involved in the health and care of the skin and hair and other bodily functions. If these things interfere with the establisht order of the curriculum, than I say "to the winds" with the curriculum but *remember* the *girl!*

Another problem in social ethics is that of training young women for economic independence. Society has shown a distinct trend in this direction in late years, but the idea has advanst by such leaps and bounds since the world-struggle began that it dwarfs into insignificance the progress of earlier decades. Women have placed themselves beside men in this struggle as we never dreamed they could, and having once taken the step they will never recede. The problem that remains is that of equipping them for economic equality with men before their education is completed, girls from homes of wealth as well as poor girls.

Still another problem in social ethics is that of social usage. This is the same old problem that confronted leaders of youth among the cave dwellers, the pastoral tribes of the Orient, the ancient Greeks and Romans, the family of the mediaeval knight, the finishing-school of a half-century

ago, but with this difference—that we are concerned with the *twentieth-century* interpretation of social usage. One long-cherisht standard of social usage that has received its deathblow since the war began is that of social exclusiveness for the young college woman. I confess that the tremendous forward stride in the democracy of conduct fairly takes one's breath away. Therefore a new problem in social ethics confronts the adviser of women: how to teach the young woman to adjust her social standards to these new situations and at the same time help to create a higher social plane for those with whom she comes into contact.

In the work of reconstruction after the war we realize that these problems in social ethics will have to play a tremendous part. The educators of girls and women can no longer leave them out of consideration but must meet them in the truest spirit of democracy. We realize that the problems that are ahead of us as teachers and advisers of young women are the finest and truest ever yet undertaken, since they breathe the spirit of democracy in education. As Jane Addams says, "We are brought to a conception of democracy, not merely as a sentiment which desires the well-being of all men, nor yet as a creed which believes in the essential dignity and equality of all men, but as that which affords a *rule of living* as well as a test of faith."

COLLEGE WOMEN IN BUSINESS

LUCINDA W. PRINCE, DIRECTOR, TEACHERS' CLASS, WOMEN'S EDUCATIONAL AND INDUSTRIAL UNION, BOSTON, MASS.

Some twelve years ago the first effort was made to reach girls in department stores, to teach them better methods of selling and of personal efficiency, to improve their earning capacity and also their worth to their employers. This work was started in connection with the Women's Educational and Industrial Union of Boston. Of course the first step was to convince the managers of the stores themselves that the work was worth while, and that it ought to produce results. So skilfully and thoroly were the managers convinst that now they are the heartiest supporters of the work.

The first groups were composed of girls from outside not already placed in positions in stores. They too had to be convinst of the worth of the training. Next the groups were recruited from the occupation itself. Girls already employed by department stores were formed into classes and given training to enable them to better the work they were doing.

A course was workt out in such a way that it would be acceptable for high-school credit, but it was not primarily academic at all. Its aims were threefold: to train the individual for her particular work, to train her so that her power and efficiency in this work would be increast, and to open her eyes to the possibilities of her position. The course in salesmanship included such topics as hygiene, arithmetic, geography, industrial history, design, and color—everything in fact that would give the sales person a merchandise

background and enlarge her vision regarding the material that she was selling and her own personal living.

The greatest change takes place in the girls themselves. They become articulate. They study the problems coming up in their own work. They study the psychology of salesmanship, not from books or magazine articles, but by analyzing their own sales, showing the means used when successful, or trying to find out the reason for failure if the sale is lost. The store itself is the laboratory, and each sale helps to train their judgment.

In Boston there are at present eight stores cooperating with the Women's Educational and Industrial Union in these courses of salesmanship. From 8:30 to 11:30, the time when the trade is slackest, a group of girls is excused in store hours to take this work without loss of pay. The course lasts for twelve weeks, and there are only about thirty girls in each group. This means that all the work can be individual, personal, and full of discussion of special problems.

The number of those who can be trained for carrying on this type of work each year is very limited, and they are usually placed long before their period of training is completed. They go mostly into large department stores, where the position is known under a variety of titles, but the work is practically the same wherever it is found. The chief problem of the educational director is with the personnel of the store. Often the one who engages and assigns employes for the various departments is the lowest paid of the managers, the one who is least carefully selected. Stores are just coming to realize that this work of fitting the person to the job is of the highest importance, and that the one who does it must be an expert in handling people. The educational director usually teaches the new people the system of the store. This is a very complicated thing, for each store has its own system, which differs from all others. It may be that in teaching the new employes the system of the store the trained educational director sees where there might be reorganization or great improvement, and this may be applied, to the great gain of the store. To the new employes she shows the opportunities in the stores, the openings and "streams of promotion," such as the service department, the merchandising (buyer), the auditing, etc. She sees that they know something of the merchandise which they are to sell, and that they are placed in the department to which they are best fitted. She sees that the compensation due for the work done is fair. She usually works with two sets of people in the early morning store hours: first, the new employes whom she is breaking into the store system; secondly, the older employes whose interest and efficiency she is improving. Possibly the second class is held right in the department itself. The salesgirls are taught to look upon each sale as an opportunity, as a practice problem just like a practice-teaching lesson in the normal school. Even the dissatisfied customer is made to yield profitable material in correcting errors.

There are other places where the trained teacher of salesmanship may help the store very greatly. One is in making over the error system, finding the causes of the greatest number of errors, how they can be reduced both in number and cost, and whether the fault is with the sales people, with the delivery system, or with the system of the store itself.

Another department where the educational director has been very helpful is in systematizing correspondence so that the letters may really represent the store and reflect the spirit of the management. This requires more than mere correctness of English. It is courtesy, patience, and intelligence in filling mail orders that customers most appreciate.

The complaint department too may be in need of reorganization. It may be in the hands of someone who antagonizes rather than conciliates, or the causes of complaints may not be sufficiently analyzed so that they can be properly remedied.

In addition to this the educational director represents the store at such meetings as those of the Consumers' League, the Union of Workers, Labor League, etc. She can speak for the store as no salesman can. She can get the point of view of the dissatisfied clerk; she can represent the point of view of the employer; she can adjust difficulties that have arisen more from ignorance than from intention. Her work all thru is one where personality counts. The tact, patience, intelligence, and judgment that such work calls for are almost infinite.

In return for this, however, the pay is good. The salaries range from $1200 to $3500, and there is almost no limit to the amount that a valuable woman may earn in this work.

At present the newest development is the introduction of departments of salesmanship in high schools, making this work elective like stenography or bookkeeping. This course is not in the commercial department but under a separate teacher. The schools that have tried it have required that the students go into the stores on Saturdays and at the times of the rush sales, such as before Christmas and Easter. The schools all report that one of the most important and surprising results is the strengthening of the English work of the students, their greatly increast interest, the enlargement of their vocabulary, and the freeing of their personality thru oral and written expression. In other words, the work approaches them on the side of their real interest rather than from the academic standpoint.

SOME IDEALS FOR DEANS

MARY W. WOOLLEY, PRESIDENT, MOUNT HOLYOKE COLLEGE,
SOUTH HADLEY, MASS.

No office is less standardized than that of dean. Probably no two people in this audience have exactly the same duties. In one institution the academic side predominates, in another the social, in a third a combina-

tion of the two. It would be difficult to lay down a program of methods and functions, and even if it were possible to do that, I fear that my interest would not be as great as in the idealistic subject assigned to me.

In a very true sense the office of the dean consists in the practical application of ideals. First there is an ideal for the dean herself. A requisite at the outset is interest in human nature; let no one adopt the profession who does not like human beings, good, bad, and indifferent. Whatever the specific duties of the deanship in the particular institution, its business is with individuals and their problems, and anyone who is bored by them is handicapt from the start. She cannot afford to accept the principle—or lack of principle—involved in the remark of a certain college instructor, "My classes might just as well be made up of so many cabbage heads. I am vitally interested in my subject, but my students do not matter." Human beings are not like pawns to be moved about at will. Dealing with them often takes time, but the time is well expended. Human nature, at least American human nature, resents being told that certain things must be done without being given a reason for doing them, and explanations and conferences with students more than pay for the demand which they make on our time.

In a certain sense the problem before the dean, the ideal for which to strive, is the reconciliation of opposites. She must learn to think standing on her feet, and yet the thought must not be superficial. She must realize that snapshot judgments are not wise and yet must be capable of deciding quickly. It is a good rule always to hear both sides before reaching a decision but, *after* reaching it, to accomplish the somewhat difficult task of neither "wobbling" nor being "stiff-neckt"!

One of the first requirements on the part of our students is genuineness; greatly to their credit they have little patience with what does not ring true. No position is more open to misunderstanding than that of dean. To be guarded in what one says and at the same time direct; sympathetic as well as definite; exact but not precise, of the "prunes and prisms" type; natural but not rash; skilled in the use of words but not pedantic; all this is easier to talk about than to practice. I believe that no one should offer herself as a candidate for a deanship who has not a good memory; the risk is too great; and I may add, as another essential, the power of discrimination in dealing with offenses. A woman executive in whose sincerity of purpose and character I had absolute confidence was misunderstood and distrusted by her students because of two faults: first, a poor memory, giving her students the impression of insincerity; second, failure to discriminate between the light and the serious offense, appearing to them to emphasize not the wrong done, but her wishes in the matter.

That dean is happy indeed who is regarded by her students as a comrade rather than as an official, but an effort or an ambition to be popular is

unworthy of a high office. An academic "climber" is almost, if not quite, as contemptible as a social "climber."

Be sympathetic but never sentimental. Be dead in earnest, but do not take yourself too seriously; a sense of humor saves many a situation. Be enthusiastic, but do not gush. Above all things a gushing dean is to be avoided! Make a point clear, but do not say too much. Students are not, as a rule, in love with verbosity.

Perhaps, after all, the surest way for a dean to attain an ideal for herself is to fix her eyes upon the ideal for the student. And that may be summed up under one head—bring out the *best* in the individual.

Bring out the *intellectual* best. As a means to that end I should like to consider four points which seem to me of prime importance because they emphasize individual instruction and supervision, not education *en masse*.

1. Small divisions.

2. Some method of knowing the student as an individual, i.e., a preceptorial or advisory system.

3. A goodly proportion of discussion in the classroom, not exclusively or even mainly lectures.

4. The best instructors—best from every point of view—it is possible to secure.

Bring out the *social* best. There are probably few of us who have never cringed because of the crudity or lack of fineness of perception on the part of some college women. "Manners are the happy way of doing things; each, once a stroke of genius or of love, now repeated and hardened into usage," says no less an authority than Emerson.

Bring out the *moral* and *spiritual* best. Did ever the world need the spiritual best as it needs it today?

We are standing at the parting of the ways. "All my historical study convinces me that we are living thru one of the crucially decisive ages in world-history, and that old things are passing away and all things are becoming new," writes an American historical student, quoted by President King. The world needs thinkers as never before—but even more it needs men and women of spiritual vision who shall be able to lead in that "deliberate and conscious change in the ideas and the wills of men" without which we cannot hope for a future free from the tragedy of today. How great a mission is yours, is ours, to help in the training of women to solve problems, to meet opportunities, to carry responsibilities, such as have never before come to them in the history of the world. We stand indeed at the parting of the ways. Shall it be backward into barbarism or forward into a new and higher type of civilization? From the women, not less than from the men, from the women of tomorrow even more than from the women of today, must come the answer.

COOPERATION BETWEEN SCHOOL AND COLLEGE IN CHARACTER FORMATION

ANNA P. MACVAY, WADLEIGH HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK, N.Y.

Serious-minded persons are unanimous in thinking that the highest values in life are moral, not material. The thought that what a man is counts for more than what he has or what he knows should be uppermost in the minds of all exponents of education. If in the routine of teaching and administration we lose our sense of values and center attention wholly on statistics that can be publisht or equipment that can be seen, we need to take time for meditation till we regain a true sense of proportion and put first things first.

The aim of education is twofold: to make the students *good* and to make them *good-for-something*. Much is said nowadays about vocational guidance and the need of specialists in that important subject, but every teacher should be a moral guide. The poet calls to the youth of America: "Ye Are the Hope of the World." But how can Mr. Hagedorn or any other optimist see his vision realized unless we who teach the youth are true to our high vocation? The formation of character is the supreme duty of the schools.

In our fear of transgressing the law against doctrinal teaching in state institutions we fail to emphasize the fundamentals of morality. The Bible—that great storehouse of ethics and religion—is generally ignored by the experts who plan our courses of study and fix the requirements for entrance to higher schools. Comparable to this neglect of moral education is the lack of instruction in patriotism. When the searchlight of public interest was turned recently upon our educational system to discover what means were there employed to develop loyal citizens, it was found that in the up-bringing of American youth little heed has been taken to teach intelligent patriotism. We have trusted to haphazard methods to awaken in them national consciousness and to tinge their emotions with love of country. The only sure way to make them loyal is to teach them the fundamental principles and ideals of our forefathers and make them able to justify their faith.

Many a teacher or professor is more interested in his department of instruction than he is in his students. His one aim seems to be to make them familiar with his particular subject and to encourage them in scholarship. He manifests no interest in the higher values of student life. This misplaced emphasis should be corrected. The school ought to concern itself with the personality of the student. Its chief aim should be to develop boys and girls into men and women of the finest type, characterized by self-control, self-respect, and consideration for the rights and feelings of others. The responsibility for imparting moral lessons to students does not belong exclusively to any one officer or teacher, altho principals and

deans feel its weight most because of their advisory positions. Every instructor in contact with the student body exerts an influence for better or worse. Every subject in the curriculum has its moral aspect. It is not so much *what* one teaches as *how* one teaches that impresses right ideals on students.

Professor Giddings, head of the department of sociology, Columbia University, in an address on "The Aim and Scope of the Public High School," delivered before the New York High School Teachers' Association, surprised his audience by showing that the chief value of manual training is to teach pupils pride in their work and the vital truth that a plumb line and a try-square cannot lie; that the chief value of commercial training in schools is to teach respect for contracts and the rights of others; and that the surest and most direct road to efficient leadership in the industrial and business world is thru unremitting study of the Latin language and of algebraical mathematics. Undoubtedly moral values lurk in other subjects, many of them wholly unsuspected by the very ones who are supposed to teach them!

The responsibility for training American youth in morals does not rest upon the elementary and secondary schools but is shared by the colleges which undertake the higher education. Schools furnish students to the colleges, and colleges furnish teachers to the schools. Cooperation is mutually advantageous and promotes the welfare of the students, for whose sake all our educational institutions exist. The confederation between school and college for furthering academic preparation is well recognized. Its success is demonstrated by the good work of the College Entrance Examination Board. All schools and colleges keep permanent records of their students' scholarships and furnish copies to interested inquirers; but in how many of them are kept systematic records of character and conduct?

Personality records kept with care and justice are valuable factors in organizing America's forces for the present war. The National Advisory Committee on Personnel of the United States Army is composed of psychologists and teachers, skilled judges of human nature and individual endowment, who classify the recruits according to their several abilities and aptitudes and assign them to duty. Wherever this intelligent handling occurs it increases the happiness of the men and the efficiency of the service. The card for recording data concerning the recruits has, following their names, columns in which are to be indicated their physical qualities, intelligence, ability for leadership, character, and value.

Vassar College has begun a somewhat similar rating of its students. The instructors are askt to rate the students in their classes on originality, accuracy, logic, industry, and general ability. The wardens of the halls of residence are askt to rate the girls under their supervision on reliability, leadership, judgment, industry, and cooperation. These data enable the

college officers to exercise greater wisdom in selecting those whom they can commend as candidates for various positions of trust and responsibility.

The character records kept at Wadleigh High School are useful in a variety of ways. They often influence teachers who are hasty in judgment

Confidential

BARNARD COLLEGE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY
NEW YORK

CONFIDENTIAL INFORMATION FOR THE USE OF THE COMMITTEE ON UNDERGRADUATE ADMISSIONS

To the Principal of the High School:

Please supply information on the following points and return this blank to the Secretary, Barnard College, New York, N.Y.

Miss.....

Graduated from the / completed the course of study in the } .....High School in.....191....

She was especially proficient in the following subjects:

She was especially weak in the following subjects:

Should the candidate's work be carefully supervised, or can she be trusted to work well without special oversight?

Please give also any information regarding the candidate's character and personality which ought to be in the possession of those who would have special charge of her college work.

Do you certify that the candidate is a person of good moral character?

Signature of Principal.....

Name of School.....

Date..... Address of school.....

to modify their opinions of girls. They help judges to decide who shall receive scholarships and other school honors. They enlighten parents who inquire about their daughters. They show the evidence on which the school officers base their recommendation of candidates for teachers' training schools. On these blanks appear such questions as: Is she reliable? Is she truthful? Is she obedient? If teachers answer these questions in the negative concerning any girl, her chance of admission to the training school will be slight. Likewise these records furnish data for answering the numerous letters of inquiry which employers send to the school, requesting confidential information concerning the ability and character of alumnae and undergraduates who are seeking positions in the business world.

These records are a chief source of information in estimating candidates for entrance to college. The knowledge that they are so used helps to sober many otherwise irresponsible girls. Altho they may think that diligent cramming will help them to pass examinations in subjects which they have neglected, they know that cramming is not possible in the matter of character tests and records. In disciplining girls who are inclined to idleness and indifferent to duty it is of incalculable assistance to show them that the colleges which they hope to enter will ask information concerning their conduct and habits of study. Too many colleges assume that all candidates are alike morally desirable and ask nothing of the schools except their scholarship records. Others make their requests in such vague and general terms that there is no opportunity for replies to be specific and to distinguish, for example, between the best candidates and those negatively good.

The Barnard College confidential blank, which is very satisfactory, is found on page 416.

The most important use we make of character records at Wadleigh is as a means of helping toward self-mastery. A censure card filed by a teacher concerning a girl's misconduct, or a statement that she is unreliable, or disobedient, or untruthful, or lacking in punctuality, gives us an opportunity to have an earnest talk with her alone or in the presence of a parent or a teacher. We appeal to her to overcome her weaknesses of character and offer her our help in so doing; her resolution taken, she generally fulfils our hopes. The knowledge that records are kept probably deters some girls from wrongdoing and causes them to ponder the significance of standards. They may not know Philip Gilbert Hammerton's definition of the intellectual life as "that preference for higher thoughts over lower thoughts," but few of them fail to realize by experience that attainments depend upon aspirations, that choice determines actions, that actions grow into habits which form character, and that character makes destiny.

DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL PATRONS

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—Mrs. Charles F. Harding, Secretary of Vocational Supervision League..Chicago, Ill.
Vice-President—Mrs. Gertrude S. Martin, Executive Secretary, Association of Collegiate Alumnae.....Ithaca, N.Y.
Secretary—Mrs. Henry Kuh.....Chicago, Ill.

FIRST SESSION—Tuesday Forenoon, July 2

The department met for its first session in the United Presbyterian Church in Pittsburgh at ten o'clock, Mrs. Harding in the chair. The following program was given:

President's Address—Mrs. Charles F. Harding.
Reports of affiliated organizations:
Association of Collegiate Alumnae—Gertrude S. Martin.
National Council of Jewish Women and Department of School Patrons of the Pennsylvania State Educational Association—Mrs. Charles Long.
General Federation of Women's Clubs—Mary E. Parker.
Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations—Elizabeth Harrison.

The following standing committees made reports:

Committee on Outside Activities and Organizations—Mrs. O. Shepard Barnum. Paper read by Ella Adams Moore.
Committee on School Health—Cooperation with Joint Committee of the National Education Association and American Medical Association—Sarah M. Hobson. Paper read by Grace P. Andress.
Committee on Vocational Supervision—Ella Adams Moore.
Committee on School Revenue—Margaret S. McNaught. Paper read by Grace P. Andress.

The reports of Emilie W. McVea, of the Southern Association of College Women, and of Marie Turner Harvey, for the Committee on Rural Schools, were received too late to be read at this meeting.

At eleven o'clock Anna Howard Shaw, chairman of the Woman's Committee, Council of National Defense, spoke on the topic, "The School a Vital Factor in War Service."

SECOND SESSION—Tuesday Afternoon, July 2

This meeting took the form of a luncheon, which began at 1:20, Ella Flagg Young presiding. Mary C. C. Bradford, Anna Howard Shaw, and Ella Flagg Young were guests of honor. The meeting took the form of a symposium on vocational supervision. The following persons spoke: W. B. Owen, Anna Howard Shaw, Mary C. C. Bradford, William M. Davidson, and Ella Adams Moore.

THIRD SESSION—Wednesday Forenoon, July 3

The department met in the United Presbyterian Church at ten o'clock, Mrs. Charles F. Harding presiding. The following program was given:

"New Aspects of an Old Problem"—Elizabeth Harrison, president, National Kindergarten and Elementary College, Chicago, Ill.
"The Status of the Child, State and National, as a Result of the War"—W. H. Swift, National Child Labor Committee, New York.
"Health Problems in Education"—Sally Lucas Jean, Child Health Organization, New York.

"The Scope of the Department of School Patrons"—Mary E. Parker, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.

"Educating Our Soldiers' Children"—Ella Flagg Young, National Woman's Liberty Loan Committee, Washington, D.C.

Business Meeting

The business meeting occurred at twelve o'clock, immediately after the close of the forenoon session, Mrs. Harding presiding. The following rules and regulations were adopted:

The members of the Patrons' Department shall be:

1. Teachers, others actively engaged in educational work, and educational institutions, as defined in Article I, Section 2, By-Laws of the National Education Association, may become members of this Department.

2. Any national organizations (other than professional educational ones) interested in the purposes and needs of educational work may become affiliated members of the Department whether general members of the National Education Association or not.

The officers of the Department shall be a President, a Vice-President, and a Secretary. These shall be elected and vacancies shall be filled in the manner prescribed by the General By-Laws of the National Education Association (see Article VI, Section 5).

There shall be an Executive Committee of the Department, consisting of the officers, who shall manage the affairs of the Department, but who shall confer from time to time with the Advisory Council.

There shall be an Advisory Council of the Department, consisting of one representative appointed or elected by each national affiliated organization, and of all the ex-presidents of the Department and of other members who may be elected by the Department or appointed by the President. The chairman of this Council shall be elected at the annual business meeting of the Department.

Mary E. Parker, chairman of the Committee on Nominations, reported the names of the following officers, who were unanimously elected:

President—Mrs. Oliver W. Stewart, Chicago, Ill.

Vice-President—Gertrude S. Martin, Ithaca, N.Y.

Secretary—Charlotte Greenebaum Kuh, Chicago, Ill.

The Advisory Council for the coming year consists of the following members:

Ex-Presidents: Mrs. Charles F. Harding, chairman of the Council; Mrs. O. Shepard Barnum; Mrs. Wm. S. Hefferan; Mrs. Louis Hertz.

Representatives of affiliated organizations: Cora Helen Coolidge, Association of Collegiate Alumnae; Mrs. Charles Long, Council of Jewish Women; Emilie W. McVea, Southern Association of College Women; Mrs. O. Shepard Barnum, General Federation of Women's Clubs; Elizabeth Harrison, Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations.

The following were elected by the Department: Ella Flagg Young, Mary E. Parker, Mrs. Addison W. Moore, Mrs. Louis F. Post.

The meeting passed unanimously and offered to the Committee on Resolutions of the National Education Association, for adoption by the Association, a resolution requesting Congress to pass, as soon as possible, a federal Child Labor Law which will not only meet the objections to the one recently declared unconstitutional but will extend legal protection to a greater number of the children of the United States.

Following the suggestion of Mrs. O. Shepard Barnum, chairman of the Committee on Outside Activities and Organizations, the department voted to cooperate so far as possible in the work of the Children's Year as carried on under the joint auspices of the federal Children's Bureau and the Department of Child Welfare of the Woman's Committee, Council of National Defense, and also to ask other organizations which now make up the Woman's Committee, Council of National Defense, to cooperate both now and after the war in the work of the Patrons' Department for children, especially for those between six and sixteen.

The meeting adjourned until 1919.

Ella Adams Moore, *Secretary pro tem*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS

MRS. CHARLES F. HARDING, CHICAGO, ILL.

The Department of School Patrons is the official connection between the great body of educators represented by the National Education Association and the public, as led by the five affiliated national organizations which make up this department.

Its object is to bring to the schools, thru the professional organization (the National Education Association) the support and assistance of the affiliated national organizations and of the great public led by the members of these organizations, and, on the other hand, to bring to these volunteer organizations the professional direction and permanent policies which are essential to educational progress, and which are outlined from time to time by the National Education Association.

The Department of School Patrons in the last two years has added to its affiliated membership the body of women who are, thru their children, closest to the schools, the Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations. The department is now at work, thru its Committee on Outside Activities, on the problem of increasing the membership by adding other national organizations.

Thru its Vocational Supervision Committee the department has undertaken, in cooperation with the Children's Bureau of the United States, an inquiry into the question of vocational guidance and employment supervision for children of working age. This inquiry is nation-wide in its scope, and some valuable facts have already been obtained. The National Council of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae has arranged for definite and valuable service to this inquiry from its members.

Thru its School Health Committee, in cooperation with the Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association, the department has distributed widely in the United States the health charts and other health pamphlets prepared by the leading medical experts of the country under the guidance of Dr. Thomas D. Wood, chairman of the Joint Committee.

Thru its School Revenue Committee the department has issued two pamphlets entitled *Guard the Schools as Well as the Trenches* and *The Safeguard of Democracy*. These pamphlets are being used by the legislative chairman of the General Federation of Women's Clubs in the states where legislatures are in session this year, to counteract any tendency to decrease school revenue, if such tendency exists, and further to increase school revenue where it is needed.

Thru addresses and conferences at the annual meetings of the five affiliated organizations and thru printed material widely distributed the

department has brought before large and influential groups progressive ideas in education contributed by the educators of the National Education Association and others.

Thru its program at the National Education Association and thru printed matter the department has brought to the attention of the National Education Association the actual education accomplishments of the public-spirited organizations interested in education. These persons stand ready to support and assist the National Education Association and its work both in initiating measures for the good of the schools and in supporting and interpreting to the community the plans for educational progress made by the National Education Association.

The department stands committed by its point of view to this support and enlargement of public education. It is a fact that many of the most progressive features introduced into the school system in the past have existed first thru private initiative and private enterprise in the form of experiment, and only when found successful and workable have they been taken over by school boards and incorporated into school systems. It is in this class of problems that the Department of School Patrons finds its special field, and to the further development of such educational projects it plans to devote its enlarged resources and opportunities.

The outgoing administration suggests that during the coming year the Department of School Patrons give its energies to supplementing and strengthening the work outlined for the Children's Year, especially as it relates to the child between six and sixteen—always keeping in mind the main function of the department, which is the furthering of the closest cooperation between the educators and the public.

REPORT OF THE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE ALUMNAE FOR THE YEAR 1917–18

GERTRUDE S. MARTIN, ITHACA, N.Y.

Like other organizations of its kind the Association of Collegiate Alumnae has this year subordinated all other activities to the effort to assist in every way possible in the one task of paramount importance, namely, the winning of the war.

At its biennial convention, which opened in Washington three days after the United States entered the war, a War Service Committee was appointed. This committee soon reacht the conclusion that one of the most vitally important tasks confronting the government is the work of patriotic education; and they proposed that a speaking campaign be at once undertaken to assist in this work of bringing home to all the people an understanding of the fundamental issues involved in the war, the necessity of our entering it, the necessity of fighting it thru to a victorious conclusion, and the menace of a premature peace.

When this work was proposed as our special war work the creation of the Speaking Division of the Committee on Public Information had not yet been announst. As soon as it was made known that such a division had been created, our Washington representative on our War Service Committee informed the director of the division of the plan we already had in hand and offered the services of the Association to assist the government wherever possible. Our representative was thereupon made a member of the Advisory Committee of the Speaking Division, and we have from the beginning workt in the closest cooperation with the division.

In order to launch the work, college women's rallies were held under the direction of the executive secretary and the War Service Committee in a great number of the larger cities of the country, and an appeal was made for the cooperation of college women. As a result a large number of speakers' bureaus were formed. These bureaus have registered hundreds of volunteer speakers and have made connections for them with all sorts of audiences thru schools, colleges, community centers, women's clubs, church societies, moving-picture theaters, industrial plants, granges, etc.

In addition to the speaking campaign, however, many of the branches have found other methods of spreading patriotic propaganda. Collections of government and other publications have been made and have been placed in public restrooms and in the lobbies of public libraries, with a volunteer worker in charge, who tries to interest as many persons as possible in taking the pamphlets home. "Current events" classes have been organized among foreign women and other working women who would find it difficult to get an understanding of the war without such assistance.

The Association is also endeavoring to cooperate as fully as possible with the Food Administration in its effort to use the college-trained women and the college students as its interpreters to the people. We are urging all the colleges to see to it that if possible every student, particularly every woman student, is given at least the short course of lectures prepared for the colleges by the Food Administration. Similarly we are cooperating with the Children's Bureau and the Child Welfare Department of the Woman's Committee in the work of the Children's Year. The Association has adopted many French orphans. It is difficult to keep track of this rapidly growing family, but we are quite safe in placing the number of our foster-children at more than a hundred and twenty-five.

The Association is deeply interested in the project of the Association of American Colleges for bringing to this country a hundred or more young French women to be educated in our American colleges, and one of our members, Miss Benton, dean of women at Carleton College, has been appointed to go to France to select these young women and bring them to the United States, and our standing Committee on Foreign Students will do everything in its power to provide warm hospitality and friendly assistance.

In its interest in the newer war activities the Association has not allowed its old activities to lapse. Its fellowships have been maintained and most of the fellowships awarded thru it by other organizations have been assigned as usual. The work of interesting girls in going to college has been continued and will be intensified this year in an effort to counteract to some extent the lure of war work. A still greater effort than heretofore will also be made to hold the younger pupils in the schools.

Following is the proposed program of work which has been issued for the year 1918–19:

1. To continue to mobilize all the college women of the various states to cooperate in every possible way with the Woman's Committee, the State Councils of Defense, and the Food Administration.

2. To continue the work of patriotic education.

3. To continue and extend our work in behalf of French orphans.

4. To cooperate with the Children's Bureau and the Child Welfare Department of the Woman's Committee in their effort to save thru the activities of the Children's Year at least 100,000 of the 300,000 babies who die annually in this country from preventable causes.

5. To watch every piece of educational, social, or industrial legislation proposed this year by the forty-one state legislatures that will be in session, and to be prepared to create the necessary public opinion either for or against the measures proposed.

6. To prevent as far as possible the abandonment of school and college by our young people in response to the call for war workers.

7. To launch, whenever the time seems opportune, a campaign for increast school revenue to meet the new demands which the war is laying upon the schools.

8. To assist the Bureau of Education in every possible way in the work of Americanization.

9. To make a study in each state of the condition of the rural schools.

10. To assist in the organization of community centers, both rural and urban, and to recruit college women for training as community-center workers.

11. To continue our effort to widen vocational opportunities for women by assisting in procuring adequate vocational guidance in schools and colleges and by the support of bureaus of occupations for trained women.

12. To further a campaign for an adequate federal Department of Public Health that shall have as one of its main divisions a Division of Public Health Education.

13. To assist in the effort for permanent peace by bringing about a better understanding between nations thru an interchange of pickt students. To this end to maintain our already establisht Latin-American Fellowship, and to create as rapidly as possible new fellowships of similar character for other foreign students. To help in the creation of scholarships for the

French women students whom it is proposed to bring to this country this year. To facilitate the sending of American students to foreign universities. To form in as many foreign countries as possible branches of our Association, which shall in turn undertake the organization in those countries of associations of their college women to be affiliated with us, thus gradually forming a federation of the trained women of the world.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, NATIONAL COUNCIL OF JEWISH WOMEN

MRS. CHARLES LONG, CHAIRMAN, EDUCATION DEPARTMENT OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF JEWISH WOMEN, WILKES BARRE, PA.

It is with very conscious pride that we point to the record of the educational work of the Council of Jewish Women for the war period, which reveals pretty uniformly the policy of "hold fast to what I give you" and Red Cross yourself.

This has been the time to show to all that the Jewish woman is a loyal, devoted, efficient American, contributing to American honor and purposes and practical labors. The record of every community shows that the Jewish womanhood in and out of the Council, but always represented by the Council, is educating America properly to place her as no alien to any labor or purpose of America while she herself is being educated; to hold fast to the religious ideals which have made her the traditional good mother, but to give up every material standard unless it absolutely conforms to the best in the American manner. She is tremendously earnest and absorbed in this war work which gives the world the opportunity of judging her as a unit, and thru the Council groups she is contributing, in disproportionate members and efficiency, as a real war measure to the solution of the problems of those of her people who are still "different" and therefore ignorant of the American ways.

The Triennial Conference of the Council of Jewish Women was held in Chicago in November, 1917. This markt the Council's entrance upon its twenty-fifth year of service. There it reconsecrated itself to stand for the whole of Jewish womanhood before the world, responsible for her tradition, available for her service, with a pride in its membership of more than ninety sections and twenty-thousand women.

Out of this convention have come more definite national policies on Americanization of Americans as well as of foreign-born, thru education and personal effort. The Council Committee on Education in each section now holds itself willing to help any Jewish school child in its community. Every need of any sort may be referred to the local section's chairman on education, or to the president of the section. Intelligent interest and conscientious service are guaranteed. Shall educators be quick to the full

usefulness of this offer? San Francisco already points the way in this service.

The second item in education is a promising, common-sense, Americanization program. "Jew" is the common name we accept with the last arrival; "American" is the common name we aim to share with her. We make her previous knowledge and condition the foundation of the new in American knowledge and condition. We reestablish her as the light, not the learner, in her own household. And so in Newark you will see the actuality in its most recent "Two R's School" for mothers of Americans.

A third objective in this educational program is providing the potential voters with definite information and dignified appreciation of the serious duty of the franchise, thru which she shall help to make the laws by which others shall live, and so in New York, Illinois, and other sections classes for the women voters are flourishing.

The educational service that has been reported from almost every section is class, group, and personal instruction in the purchase and preparation of food and in the war regulations; also classes in personal and social hygiene; lectures building up the historic background for our present-day status of woman; Judaism and the war; child-study and parliamentary law; the drama and music, with scholarships for the talented; and special classes for the physical misfits, penny lunches, and other socio-educational measures and lectures on religion go quietly along as part of a practical patriotism.

The common objectives for all the Council's work are the widening of American life and ideals thru education, the adjustment to American standards thru education, and the conquest of physical ills and material injustice thru education. We ask in return that all that holds the Jew up to ridicule and discrimination be eliminated and the American school live up to the spirit and letter of democracy and good-will.

The Council therefore, for this war period, sums up its labor. For war service nowhere have more loyal, efficient, or proportionately larger numbers been provided in every line than from among its members. For Americanization no program more conscientious, or more earnestly hopeful, or more practically arranged has been projected than thru its lecture, class, and personal contact. For community activity nowhere more cheerful or wider helpfulness than is in its pledge of personal interest in every root and branch of the house of Jacob in the great American family. For group activity nowhere is the responsibility for one's brother and to one's country, its privileges and welfare, more constantly, earnestly, and lovingly fostered. If a wider, a more inclusive, or a more effectual labor can be suggested, speak, for the Council is consecrated to project it. Thru each of its ninety groups the Council of Jewish Women offers a right arm in the building of the perfect American community.

REPORT OF PENNSYLVANIA DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL PATRONS

MRS. CHARLES LONG, PRESIDENT, PENNSYLVANIA DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL PATRONS, WILKES-BARRE, PA.

The Department of School Patrons of the Pennsylvania State Educational Association was created at the earnest request of the Wilkes-Barre Central Council of Parent-Teachers Associations and the Committee on Education of the Council of Jewish Women. The formal petition was presented by Dr. Samuel Weber, of Scranton, now state president.

At the Association meeting in Johnstown, December, 1917, the new department conducted a symposium on its purposes, presented from the angle of the teacher by the president of a Teachers' League, of the parent by the president of the Pennsylvania Mothers' Congress, of the child by the president of the Child Study Round Table, of the taxpayer by the president of a Rotary Club, letting in the light upon "the needs and interests of children, the welfare and purposes of teachers, the privileges and duties of parents, the rights and obligations of taxpayers, so that each may better understand and help the other."

The second program dealt with the general topic "Sprags in the Machinery of Education," setting forth "The Defective as the Teacher's Cross," "The Immigrant in the Process of Melting," "Industry and the School Child," and Dr. S. Weber, superintendent of the Scranton schools, cleverly explained "How the School System Meets These Problems."

The December, 1918, meeting, in Harrisburg, will deal with those war purposes which involve the child's best interests, such as labor laws, kindergartens, vocational direction, and recreational and other summer programs; the teacher's just salary and service rating; the parent and citizen's necessary and legitimate right to instruction and forum in the schoolhouse as the heart of the state's life, making the dominant note of the program the potentialities of the schoolhouse as the source from which all blessings of our true democracy shall flow, the place to "put it over" in the best sense, with a downright get-togetherness of family, community, and federal interests.

GENERAL FEDERATION OF WOMEN'S CLUBS

MARY E. PARKER, WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY, CLEVELAND, OHIO

It is somewhat difficult to report accurately and adequately the work of the General Federation of Women's Clubs during the past year, because in the attempt to define war educational work it is difficult to differentiate between work done with a view to meeting specific and immediate war needs and that done to meet needs which have arisen or grown more acute on account of war conditions. The women in our clubs have done both types

of work. They have assisted the schools in their work in food conservation and in campaigns for Red Cross, Liberty Loans, War Savings, and other war measures, and in some cases our departments of education have less to report because their strongest workers have been absorbed in direct war service. It has been the policy of this department to encourage such activity, because the demands of the war itself have been so insistent during the past year that all other work has seemed to be of minor importance. There have been attempts to reduce appropriations for school purposes, and children have been allowed to leave school for one cause or another. Many seem to forget these days that the war is being waged in order that the ideals which this people have cherisht may be perpetuated for coming generations, and if the sacrifices of today are not to be in vain, the next generation must be educated now to continue worthily the work which America has begun. We need to remind ourselves constantly not only that our schools must not suffer now, but that they must become even more effective instruments of education than they have ever been.

There is a stupendous task before the schools of America, and more is expected of them than they can possibly meet unaided, particularly in the more sparsely settled sections of the country. They need all the help they can get from volunteer agencies, and upon no organization rests a heavier obligation than upon the women's clubs thruout the country. It is in their power to demand not only more generous appropriations for the maintenance of our schools but also indorsement and support of progressive educators who see clearly the modifications which the changed conditions are demanding. It should be the concern of school authorities to enlist as far as possible this volunteer cooperation. More and more our activities must be under the direction of the expert. Our work is supplementary, but it is of the utmost importance that we do not duplicate work already done, and above all things do not work at cross purposes with those upon whom rests the responsibility for conducting our schools at this time of national emergency.

About a year ago letters were sent by the chairman of the department of education of this organization to the United States Commissioner of Education, the president of the National Education Association, and all the state superintendents of public instruction in the country, asking how we could best serve the cause of education in time of war. The response was cordial, gratifying, and stimulating. Many of the suggestions which were made were incorporated in a pamphlet which was sent in quantities to all the state chairmen of education and later distributed at the biennial convention at Hot Springs. These suggestions may be summarized in the need for the extension of educational opportunities which the war has made all the more acute. There should not be in this great country any such thing as adult illiteracy, because the state should see to it that every child has the opportunity for at least an elementary education. There

should not be a state in the union without compulsory-education laws, and those who have come into our midst from other countries should not only speak but read and write the English language. In states in which there is no compulsory-education law the club women have been actively interested in campaigns to effect such legislation. In Maryland, in particular, vigorous work has been carried on during the past year. The Federation contributed definitely to the success of the Compulsory Education Bill which became law in 1916.

In the southern states, notably in Kentucky, the women have been working in the campaign for the elimination of illiteracy among the English-speaking whites in the sparsely settled sections of the country. We have indorst the Smith-Bankhead Bill, and by resolutions at the biennial convention have committed ourselves to work for the elimination of illiteracy.

In the larger cities we have contributed to the work of Americanizing the foreign population. Massachusetts has had an active special Americanization Committee with much good work to its credit. In California the state chairman of education has been a member of the State Commission of Immigration and Housing, and some of the most stimulating and helpful Americanization material publisht is sent out by this Commission.

With the importance which the war has attacht to all agricultural pursuits has come a largely increast appreciation of the significance of the rural school, and it is a pleasure to report that apparently in no other single cause are so many clubs enlisted. This service covers a wide range of activities, and almost every state in the Union reports some type of work. The women are closely in touch with state departments of public instruction and with state university extension departments, so that what they do has local significance and is well directed. We regard it as of the utmost importance that our different federations and clubs ally themselves closely with the schools of the rural districts. The rural school stands in a very fundamental relation to our nation's welfare.

Closely allied with the foregoing activities has been the work undertaken with a view to meeting the health requirements for rural schools found in Dr. Wood's *Report on Health Conditions*. This has meant necessarily increast appropriations for school purposes, and in many cases the program of the clubs has included a definite campaign for increast school revenues.

In spite of the pressure which the war has brought upon all sections of the country we are glad to report that scholarship funds have been maintained in almost every state in the country and in many cases have been increast. In addition to this, different clubs have distributed leaflets in the schools, giving reasons why it is a form of patriotic service to remain in school as long as possible, because the country is going to need trained and educated citizens more than ever after the war is won.

The new committee in the department has concerned itself with kindergarten extension and has been successful in forming special committees in

several of the states. In Texas and Maine the club women have contributed to the passage of more progressive kindergarten laws.

At the convention held at Hot Springs we were honored by the presence of the President of the National Education Association, who spoke to us upon Americanization. Mrs. Bradford also indicated to us briefly the purpose of the joint Commission which has been studying the national emergency in education, and we shall await with interest the findings of this Commission. The women of the General Federation may be depended upon to support those school authorities who attempt to modify their procedure in accordance with the recommendations made in the report.

Never before have we workt so well under the guidance of the educational leaders in our several states, and never have we joined forces with other organizations to such a degree as we have during the past year. In this time of national testing there are great pieces of work to be done for which no single organization is adequate, and the value of our service is often greatest when we combine forces with other organizations, accepting definite and detailed responsibilities and working always under the guidance of those who see educational problems with a broader and clearer vision than ours can possibly be.

GUARDING THE SCHOOLS IN WAR TIME

MRS. O. SHEPARD BARNUM, CHAIRMAN, COMMITTEE ON COORDINATION OF OUTSIDE ACTIVITIES

(Paper read by Mrs. Addison W. Moore)

The Committee on the Coordination of Outside Activities of the Department of School Patrons of the National Education Association was assigned the task of finding out what volunteer organizations—particularly organizations of women—were doing to aid the schools. Experience had shown that in some communities stimulation of outside activities on behalf of the schools was greatly needed, while in other communities there was waste and confusion due to overlapping.

With the first shock of war the assigned task obviously became superfluous, because all organizations, professional and volunteer, concentrated attention and activities on helping to get our national forces to the front, and helping to supply their every need. The schools, the teachers, the clubs, and other organizations with one accord have workt with all war organizations.

The second year of the war, however, has brought a keen realization of another most profound problem. The winning of the titanic world-struggle for the safety of our nation and the safety of civilization in the future cannot be accomplisht *in very truth* unless we save all our children now—the children who are the nation of the future; unless furthermore

we secure for all the children of the nation the education by which alone the hard-won heritage of civilization can be transmitted.

The Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor has been keenly alive to this problem and has workt out masterly plans for its solution in cooperation with the Department of Child Welfare of the Woman's Committee, Council of National Defense. The second year of the war, April 6, 1918, to April 6, 1919, is to be known as "Children's Year," and the plan indicated has received the sanction of our President, who says:

> Next to the duty of doing everything possible for the soldiers at the front, there could be, it seems to me, no more patriotic duty than that of protecting the children who constitute one-third of our population.
>
> The success of the efforts made in England in behalf of the children is evidenst by the fact that the infant death-rate in England for the second year of the war was the lowest in her history. Attention is now being given to education and labor conditions for children by the legislatures of both France and England, showing that the conviction among the Allies is that the protection of childhood is essential to winning the war.
>
> I am very glad tnat the same processes are being set afoot in this country, and I heartily approve the plan of the Children's Bureau and the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense for making the second year of the war one of united activity on behalf of children, and in that sense a children's year.

The President has exprest the hope that the Children's Year "will not only see the goal reacht of saving 100,000 lives of infants and young children, but that the work may so successfully develop as to set up certain irreducible minimum standards for the health, education, and work of the American child."

In the *Children's Year Leaflet*, No. 3 (Bureau publication No. 40), will be found carefully workt-out plans, especially for young children under six. Much is indicated also for children from six to sixteen. Miss Lathrop stresses the enforcement of child labor laws, and attention to *rural districts*. She stresses also community recreation, particularly "patriotic recreation week" for the last week in August. Health is emphasized thruout, and proper provision for mothers and for home conditions. Compulsory school attendance thruout the legal age and vocational supervision thruout the critical period thereafter are urged.

Commissioner P. P. Claxton has pointed out a number of important ways in which schools and school children should be guarded during the war. The care of the health of children of school age and the "great need for an increase in school revenues" are most convincingly urged. He says in part:

> It is now necessary to increase very largely the school revenues in order to keep the schools up to their former standards. It is a case of being necessary to run very fast in order to stand still.
>
> The school revenues are not adequate for war times, and almost everywhere the better teachers are leaving for other occupations.
>
> In some places appropriations and tax levies are being increast, but reports of smaller appropriations and the lowering of tax rates come from many places.

Workers for the schools and for child welfare during the past year report great difficulty in finding helpers; those usually able and willing are now engrost in doing everything possible for the soldiers at the front. Yet the other "patriotic duty" must be fulfilled for "protecting the children," for "united activity on behalf of children."

Clearly the Department of School Patrons must mobilize the two or three millions of members in its affiliated organizations and must enlist all other volunteer organizations to help guard the schools and protect the children, and to help fulfil all the expert plans of the Children's Year.

CONSERVING THE HEALTH OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

SARAH M. HOBSON, CHAIRMAN, COMMITTEE ON SCHOOL HEALTH

(Paper read by Mrs. Grace P. Andress)

The child comes into the world not by his own will but by the will of others. He has a right to demand safety from gross physical and spiritual poison.

It is scarcely to our credit as a nation that we cannot be aroused to the necessity of conserving the health of children until child life becomes an economic problem.

This Association should go on record actively to support the Children's Year, and to follow up registration by stated conferences with mothers and children. These conferences will disclose bad living conditions—food and housing; the disproportion of wages to wholesome living; the factor of ignorance and vice in scholastic record. They will lay bare community shortcomings, the inaccessibility of skilled medical aid except thru the charity of a public dispensary, the practical impossibility at present of giving every child a generous daily portion of clean raw milk, the indifference of the municipality to unsanitary housing, the moral turpitude of social conditions in recreation.

Food not measured by calories alone should be provided—food for growth as well as for energy.

War-time housing means lodgers to eke out the family income. Lodgers mean limited air space and loss of individual privacy. Lodgers mean more intimate exposure to communicable diseases—overcrowding of the body.

Tuberculosis, that scourge of early maturity, frequently has its inception in early childhood. Examiners in this campaign for child welfare should be instructed to give particular attention to this opportunity for discovering such errors of life and environment as predispose to this disease.

Speeding up on war service is unnecessary. There has been in some schools a deplorable loss in intellectual training and mental poise from the speeding up in war-time school activities. This is overcrowding of the spirit.

A campaign for the health conservation of children is not particularly spectacular. Educational campaigns do not lend themselves to glitter and applause. There is, however, a wonderful possibility of improving the quality of our citizenship if we begin with the children.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON VOCATIONAL SUPERVISION

ELLA ADAMS MOORE, CHAIRMAN, CHICAGO, ILL.

In the city of New York about 50,000 children apply each year for permission to begin, at fourteen or fifteen, the long task of making a living; in Chicago there are about half as many, in Philadelphia a slightly smaller number, and so on in every city, town, and village in the United States these hosts of young workers are taking upon themselves the industrial burdens of the nation.

Where do these little "sons of Martha"—and daughters too—find their employment? What friendly hand is stretcht out to them as, timid and bewildered, they seek an open door in industry?

The Vocational Supervision Committee of the Department of School Patrons has had these questions in mind during the two years of its existence. In the autumn of 1916 it planned a nation-wide inquiry as to vocational guidance and employment supervision in the case of these untrained children, but after six months of effort it was found that such an investigation would be impossible for the committee, since time and money were limited, and authority to ask for statistics entirely wanting.

The committee therefore applied to Miss Lathrop, chief of the Children's Bureau in Washington, for help. Thru this bureau a questionnaire was sent, in the spring of 1917, to 424 towns and cities of 10,000 inhabitants or more in the United States. About 60 per cent of these cities replied, but because of the limited time given them for returning their answers and because of a lack of understanding on the part of some of those who received the questionnaire, the findings were very incomplete. The movement is new and in most cities still in an experimental stage. Hence the information was meager in the case of many cities which replied. Yet much more than is indicated by the figures came out of the inquiry. The questionnaire has been of distinct value for the following reasons:

1. It has given us some facts in the case of more than 60 per cent of the cities addrest.

2. It has shown that some form of vocational guidance exists in 25 per cent of the cities.

3. It has shown that extensive and systematic work is being carried on in about $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the cities.

4. This has, of course, revealed the need of better methods or more extensive operation in nearly 95 per cent of the cities.

5. The effect on the cities addrest was good. The letter from the Children's Bureau evidently acted as a stimulus.

In the press of other work the Children's Bureau has not been able to prosecute the inquiry further this year. Plans are being made, however, to take it up again soon and to carry it on to more definite results.

The Council of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae in its session last winter in Chicago voted to establish a National Committee on Juvenile Vocational Supervision. It has offered its services to the Children's Bureau to do preliminary investigation thru its branch associations. It believes that it can be of service in finding out: (1) in what cities and towns forms of vocational guidance or employment supervision are being carried on; (2) the organizations, public or private, which are carrying on such work; (3) the names and addresses of officials having the work in charge.

We hope that the Bureau may find it possible to take up this inquiry very soon, and that it will publish a report which will (1) show exactly where adequate vocational supervision is being carried on in the United States; (2) make a study of methods in use in different cities; (3) make some recommendations as to the best way in which to establish vocational guidance or employment supervision in cities where they do not yet exist; (4) make recommendations as to the best methods of carrying on the work in cities of various classes.

As a second piece of work this committee has planned to bring before clubs and schools the need for vocational supervision and to suggest methods for beginning and prosecuting the work. The need for vocational supervision is especially urgent now. More children are leaving school than ever before in the history of the school system.

Many causes are operating to cut short the education of these children. The enlistment of bread-winners, the increast cost of living, and, perhaps most potent of all, a feeling on the part of the child that in some way he is doing his bit for his country by going to work. The retarded child who is already dissatisfied with school would leave under almost any circumstances if he could get a job. The superior child leaves now only because he believes that in so doing he is helping his family or his country.

Perhaps the first thing we can do for these children is to show them that patriotism points to an education rather than to a job. Commissioner Claxton has pointed out that this country will need trained workers at the end of the war as no country ever needed them before.

The children should be led to see the future value of a few years more in school. They should be told that the Massachusetts Commission on Industrial and Technical Education has found that of one hundred children who go to work at fourteen, ninety-eight remain untrained workers all their lives; that the Henry Street Settlement has found that after working three years those people who have had two years of training are making

wages two and one-half times as great as those who have been working five years and who left school without training.

The committee is planning a circular for distribution among the clubs which make up the Department of School Patrons, giving the foregoing facts in as telling a form as possible. It also plans a series of charts to be used in public schools, community centers, etc., giving graphically these facts and quoting such statements as the following:

> The most useful thing a high-school boy can do is to finish his course.—SECRETARY BAKER.
>
> Any boy who has the opportunity to complete at least a high-school course and fails to do so is making the greatest mistake of his life. The present war conditions only emphasize this.—SECRETARY DANIELS.

The committee plans also to distribute widely circulars on the subject of scholarships, or direct financial aid to keep children in school. It hopes to organize as many vocational-guidance centers and scholarship committees as possible thruout the country, and in every way it will seek to awaken a wider sense of parenthood in the great body of the public, and a desire on the part of every adult in each community to obtain for all the children of the community the best possible training for their life-work.

GUARDING THE SCHOOLS IN WAR TIME

MARGARET S. MCNAUGHT, COMMISSIONER OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF CALIFORNIA; CHAIRMAN, COMMITTEE ON SCHOOL REVENUE, SACRAMENTO, CAL.

(Paper read by Mrs. Grace P. Andress)

Suddenly the war has summoned the school to the tasks of the nation. To its duties as a community center there have been added those of a national center. This summons has come directly from the President of the United States, and no message to Congress, nor any to a foreign power, shows in its language more evidence of careful thought, deep feeling, and sincerity of eloquence than his message to the public schools. He said:

> In these vital tasks of acquiring a broader view of human possibilities the common school must have a large part. I urge that teachers and other officers increase materially the time and attention devoted to instruction bearing directly on the problems of community and national life. Such a plea is in no way foreign to the spirit of American public education or of existing practices. Nor is it a plea for the temporary enlargement of the school problem appropriate merely to the period of the war. It is a plea for a realization in public education of the new emphasis which the war has given to ideals of democracy and to the broader conceptions of national life.

Secretary Lane's statements are no less significant. In his annual report for 1915 he refers to the "twenty-two million boys and girls in our

schools as our chief resource and chief concern," and in a personal letter to your chairman of the Committee on School Revenue he says:

> We cannot afford to do anything that will interrupt their education. We are fighting that democracy may be preserved for them, but we must not let the war turn us aside from our duty of seeing that they shall be mentally trained to take their places in the world when life's responsibilities shall come to them as men and women.

Undoubtedly this attitude of our President and of our Secretary of the Interior has had much to do with influencing public opinion regarding the stability of education; for so far as investigation reveals facts, there is no direct effort being made to deprive children of this all-important factor for good citizenship.

In order to place these facts plainly before the people and to state clearly reasons why the schools should be held to their present standards of efficiency or even increast inefficiency, two leaflet bulletins were printed, entitled, *The Safeguard of Democracy* and *Guard the Schools as Well as the Trenches*. The former was intended for general distribution in order to fix as firmly as possible in the minds of our people the idea of the importance of maintaining our schools at a high degree of efficiency. The latter was intended to be used in those states whose legislatures were advocating retrenchment in school expenditure. Secretary of the Interior Franklin K. Lane, on request, wrote a letter supporting the facts set forth in the leaflet.

These leaflets, embodying Secretary Lane's letter, were distributed as follows: To the state chairman of legislation and of education of the General Federation of Women's Clubs; to the general officers and sectional vice-presidents of the Collegiate Alumnae; to the officers of the Council of Jewish Women; and to the officers of the Southern Association of College Women. A circular letter was sent with the leaflets explaining their nature and purpose and stating that if necessary a limited number could be supplied for distribution.

It is gratifying to be able to report that no responses were received stating that in any state was there a tendency to lessen the amount of school expenditure. However, certain very definite requests have been made for the leaflets. Four hundred were forwarded to the Biennial Convention of the General Federation of Women's Clubs held at Hot Springs, Ark.

Mrs. Maynard Kimberland, chairman of education, General Federation of Women's Clubs, Wheeling, W.Va., wrote on May 5, 1918, as follows: "We have a movement on foot to revise the state school laws. . . . . I think *The Safeguard of Democracy* most adaptable to our local situation and should like to have a quantity soon to scatter over the state."

Correspondence with Miss Lucy Bartholomew, treasurer, Southern Association of College Women, Virginia, reveals the fact that Virginia has increast its appropriation of school funds to the amount, approximately, of $776,050.

The report of Miss Elizabeth L. Clarke, Williamstown, Mass., states: "So far as I know there has been no question in the Massachusetts legislature of restricting educational appropriations at all. Indeed the tendency is the other way, a new bill making application for physical training being now in committee."

Miss Cora G. Lewis reports that Kansas has no thought of dropping back.

Mrs. E. Buchner says that in Maryland a number of destructive education bills were brought in, but public opinion defeated them.

Miss Anna J. Hamilton, dean of women, University of Kentucky, writes: "The Kentucky General Assembly adjourned March 20, and the tendency was toward raising rather than lowering the apportionment."

Mrs. Mary Leal Harkness, of Louisiana, secretary of the Southern Association of College Women, says that there is no tendency in that state toward retrenchment; on the contrary, there is a strong campaign on for increase in teachers' salaries.

Mrs. Florence M. Hale writes that in Maine people are thinking of increasing rather than of decreasing school appropriations. In connection with this statement, however, it is well to call attention to a publisht letter of State Superintendent A. O. Thomas. He writes:

> The pull of greater compensation in business positions and in clerical work for the federal government has depleted our ranks. Teachers who have taught for several years on a salary of $10 to $12 per week for thirty-six weeks in the year have accepted government positions, recently, at $1,100 to $1,200. There is a national call for a 25 per cent increase in the wages of teachers for the coming year.

Facts such as these clearly demonstrate the necessity for an increase in teachers' salaries and therefore in the funds from which salaries are paid.

Mrs. J. N. Kelly reports favorably for Montana, saying, "Appropriations by the last legislature for school purposes were as liberal as usual."

It is the part of wisdom to guide the thoughts of people along right lines before they have been turned in wrong directions. Thus while there seems to be no cause for fear at present that school revenues thruout the United States will be reduced, it is well to remember that changes in opinion are made with surprising rapidity these days. Therefore it is advisable to have fixt in the public consciousness definite reasons why the schools should be maintained at a high degree of efficiency, so that if an attack is made in the attempt to weaken their efficiency these facts will be in mind ready to repulse the attack.

RURAL SCHOOLS IN THE WAR

MARIE TURNER HARVEY, CHAIRMAN, COMMITTEE ON RURAL SCHOOLS, KIRKSVILLE, MO.

On March 15 last, Secretary of Interior Lane addrest a letter to the Chairman of the Senate and House Committees on Education.

What it reveals cannot be overemphasized. He says:

> The war has brought facts to our attention that are almost unbelievable, and that are in themselves accusatory. There are in the United States (Census of 1910) 5,516,163 persons over ten years of age who are unable to read or write. There are 700,000 men of draft age who *cannot read or write* in English or in any other language. Over 4,600,000 illiterates are twenty years of age or more . . . . over 58 per cent of this number are white persons, 1,500,000 being *native-born whites*. . . . .
>
> The federal government and the states spend millions of dollars trying to give information to the people in rural districts about farming and home making. Yet 3,700,000, or 10 per cent of our country folk, cannot read or write a word. They cannot read a bulletin on agriculture, a farm paper, a food pledge card, a Liberty Loan appeal, a newspaper, the Constitution of the United States, or their Bibles; nor can they keep personal or business accounts.
>
> An uninformed democracy is not a democracy. A people who cannot have means of access to the mediums of public opinion and to the messages of the President and the acts of Congress can hardly be expected to understand the full meaning of this war to which all must contribute in life or property or labor.

The obvious relation of illiteracy to the democracy of American ideals demands nation-wide concerted action by all educational forces of the United States to eliminate as speedily as possible the curse of illiteracy.

Some 12,000,000 of America's youth are spending at least seven of the most important years of their lives in the typical one- and two-room school buildings, inadequate viewed from every standpoint, and under the direction of itinerant teachers.

Since the emergency demands that we make every rural community in the land realize its possibilities thru its present legal educational machine, the *school teacher* is obviously the pivot on which this big project swings. Our public school system, rural and city alike, must be made to serve the cause of democracy as efficiently as Germany made hers serve autocracy.

Money must be found to call into the rural field men and women having necessary qualifications for this pressing national service. "The National Education Association Commission on the Emergency in Education and Program for Readjustment during and after the War" has no more important work to do than to evolve a plan for immediate nation-wide propaganda in the interest of state and federal aid to expedite the entrance of a small army of such teachers into the rural field. Given such teachers, with freedom to readjust the traditional course of study, etc., to local conditions, what *could* result in five short years is best indicated by citing a case in point: the Porter School District, Adair County, Missouri, containing nine square miles of prairie farming land, having a sparse popula-

tion of less than two hundred, lies contiguous to Kirksville, a town of 10,000. Conditions were appalling; farming practices were poor. It is inconceivable that there could have been such isolation and such extreme individualism so near a good town. There was absolute lack of cooperation, local initiative, and, most tragic of all, lack of local faith in the possibilities of bringing about a permanent régime of progress. How a small group of intelligent taxpayers and a resident teacher-leader changed the "old order" with the *limited resources* of the typical school district is a gripping story.

This sketchy outline shows conditions in 1912 which are only too general in rural sections. Look at it today! There are: a flourishing farmers' club; an active woman's club; a poultry club of young people that in three years has driven out "scrub" poultry; a pig club which will do for hog breeding what the poultry club has done in its field; an interdenominational Sunday school; a high-school annex, where its students are able to make $4\frac{1}{2}$ units of accredited work; a community band, numbering 20 young men and women; a junior band of 14 members.

It has touched every interest of old and young, *holding to the farm every boy and girl grown to maturity.* Not one has been lost to the community during the five years, excepting in the several cases where the family moved out of the district for business reasons.

Thru *cooperation*, this school has become more than a community center; it is in fact a *distributing center of efficiency, social and economic*, used every day in the week, twelve months of the year. Its people are happy, contented, striving for the better things in life, and intensely patriotic, because they are an *informed* people. War found this community in a state of "preparedness." The following is an incomplete statement of war service by this community (their total land values being assest at some $112,000.00) between July 4, 1917, and July 1, 1918:

Red Cross (cash)	$ 380.00	
Y.M.C.A. (cash)	80.00	
Thrift and War Savings Stamps	480.00	(School children)
War Savings Stamps	10,020.00	(Community)
Liberty Loan bonds	5,000.00	
Canned vegetables, 3116 quarts valued at 20 cents a quart (14 families)	623.00	
Total	$16,583.00	

Adair County has 80 school districts. Under similar conditions Adair County would as cheerfully have furnisht $1,326,640.00. Missouri's 114 counties, under similar conditions, would have yielded $151,236,960.00.

Two of this community's young men are *volunteers* in the Army, two in the Navy, and the others are bravely restraining their desire to enlist and are making more acres yield more food for the United States and her Allies—allowing themselves to be drafted in order to render such service. The hour demands this service. Teachers, 100 per cent American in their

ideals and purpose, are as imperative in the rural sections of this country as are loyal and competent officers with the American Expeditionary Forces.

THE STATUS OF THE CHILD, STATE AND NATIONAL, AS A RESULT OF THE WAR

W. H. SWIFT, SPECIAL AGENT, NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE, NEW YORK, N.Y.

At the time when our country was about to enter the war for the vindication of the right and for the ultimate establishment of better world-conditions for all people there was great anxiety lest this war should, as all former wars had done, levy the most onerous tribute upon the children of our land. We knew that in England and France children had been hurried away from school to do the work of men in the shops and in the field. We knew that delinquency had increast fearfully in England, and that the best authorities traced this increase to the unusual conditions caused by the war. We knew that it had been said on the floor of the British Parliament, "A large portion of our elementary-school system is in ruin"; and that Mr. Sidney Webb, speaking of England, had said, "Peace will involve almost the remaking of the nation's educational machinery."

We knew that there were men in our own country ready to use the war as an excuse for drawing children from their books and their necessary play into the shops and fields, ready to use the war as an excuse for continuing the exploitation of childhood; and these men were not negligent in their business or in the molding of public opinion to their own end. There ran over our country a sort of wave of demand that all laws enacted for the protection of workers, whether adult or child, be suspended for the term of the war. In fact, the legislatures of one or two states took legislative steps to that very end.

How much irreparable harm was done by that first wave of eagerness to throw children into the work of the conduct of the war no one will ever know. In Kansas we know that the following resolution was adopted by the Board of Education and transmitted by the State Superintendent of Education to county and city superintendents:

> *Resolved*, That superintendents and principals be advised that in view of the war situation and the food crisis the State Board of Education will approve granting a full year's credit to pupils who, having passing grades, find it necessary to withdraw from school before the end of the school year, either to enlist in the military service or actually engage directly in food production.

There were no requirements as to physical fitness for the work. Some of the superintendents, however, did make certain requirements for their own school. The State Superintendent did not know and had no way of knowing how many children were excused from school to their lasting hurt.

In Missouri the State Superintendent sent on April 13, 1917, the following:

> Excuse at once from your high school all boys over fourteen years of age who will go out to farms and work. Give them full credit for their year's work at the end of the school year with the standing that they have at present . . . . include boys who live in the country and boys who will go to the farm to work. Extend the privilege to girls where you deem it advisable.

No one knows how many dropt out of school.

After May 1 in Illinois "to work on the farm was accepted as an excuse for absence from school, provided the boy was over fourteen."

In Indiana, at the suggestion of the canning factories, the State Department of Public Instruction recommended that the opening of the schools be delayed so that the children might work in the canning industry.

When we remember that wherever a detailed study has been made it has been found that farm work is the chief cause of the absence of children from the public schools in rural communities, we see how significant these facts become. The schools were disrupted, with the excuse that we were in war and that the labor of children was needed—and all this in a time of unequaled prosperity. Boys, without any regard to physical fitness and without any careful investigation of living conditions or moral surroundings, were sent out to be exploited by farmers. The whole scheme threatened to be destructive to our educational system and to child life.

Fortunately, however, things were not so bad as they seemed to be. In our depression we were forgetting for the time the native good sense of the American people, and that they do not willingly surrender high ground either in peace or in war. A second and deeper wave of thought swept over the country contradicting or rather submerging, except in certain narrow straits, much of the evil influences of that first wave. America now lives and works in this second wave, and there is no good reason for thinking that our sober second thought upon this very serious matter will not endure and control.

The result of the whole war movement is a new status for the child in both the state and the nation. There has been such a tremendous change in the public thought that we seem to be at the beginning of a new era. At the point where there seemed to be a weakness of the line of defense drawn around our children strength has been added. W. E. Hall, National Director of the United States Boys' Working Reserve, says:

> We arrived at the decision to make minimum age sixteen for boys who leave home to work on farms, and then only after a careful examination of all the conditions surrounding farm life. . . . . The United States Boys' Working Reserve deals almost entirely with the city boy, who in many instances is leaving his home for the first time to live amid strange surroundings. It is most important that he be mature enough to take care of himself under all conditions, and that he be strong enough to stand the rigors of hard work on the farm.

I quote from a bulletin of the United States Bureau of Education:

> Aside from casual work, chores, and the like, which might be done outside of school hours, the labor of boys under fourteen years of age is not a vital factor on the farm. City boys without farm experience are not generally useful under sixteen years of age. There appears to be nothing in the present or prospective war emergency to justify curtailment in any respect of the session of elementary schools.

The United States Commissioner of Education stated the general thought of the country when he said, "I do not believe that there is any need for taking children from school or for shortening school terms."

There are three reasons for this recent strengthening of the line of defense for children. The first is that whoever has taken the trouble to make inquiry has found that children under sixteen years of age are not wanted and cannot be profitably used in farm work. In time this in itself would have cured much of the evils of the first period.

The other two reasons are much more fundamental. There is an increasing but largely unexprest consciousness of the inalienable right of every child to make the most of himself. This is not new. Circumstances have simply brought it more clearly into the foreground for the time being.

The natural law of sympathy has borne its just fruit in forcing us to think of our own boys and girls. What was it that held our closest attention in those first months of the war? Not the marching of the hosts of men as they hurried to the trenches. We expected that. It was the devastating of Belgian homes and the ruthless scattering or slaughtering of Belgian children and the great losses suffered by the children of England and France by reason of the war. Thinking of the child over there has turned our eyes upon our own children over here.

The result is that the American people, now keenly conscious of all human rights, are ready to say that every child in this country must be given a free, fair, fighting chance to make the most and the best of his individual life. Democracy demands this and will be content with nothing else. Our soldiers upon their return will feel keen disappointment if they find that we have allowed ourselves to accept any lower standard. American ideals demand that society, the state, should hold itself responsible for the proper care of every child and should actually see that every child has a good home, good food, proper clothing, proper education, his opportunity for play, for recreation, and for growth and all-round development—a fair chance at life for every child. In our time that is what we understand to be the rights of a child.

But we are not now thinking so much of the individual rights of the child. Our chief concern lies in the state, in society in the aggregate. It is principally this which has saved us from the foolish destruction of much of the good work already done. We are at this hour bending our energies to preserve, develop, and perfect our civilization. The war has forst us to realize far more fully than ever before that our nation, any nation for

that matter, needs most and must have, first of all, men and women able to do and endure to the uttermost. At this hour of stress and strain the chief demand is for intelligent, efficient, human power, and we know that this same intelligent, efficient man power will be our best asset, that upon which we may rely, after the war. We can make machines; we must grow men. The war has taught and is teaching us the economic and social value of the child. We are profiting by the lessons already learned in both England and France. Our great desire is to see ours become a country in which all men are strong and women are their equals, and in which the child is to be one of the chief concerns of the nation. The people of America have spoken in plain terms and have declared that the child must be cared for. The time is ripe for the making of great strides forward. Everybody is looking for it. Social thinkers and educators will blunder if they do not make the most of their present opportunities and of the aroused state of public opinion.

Much valuable work has already been done, not only by the Bureau of Education, but by the Department of Public Health and the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor. We are just beginning to become conscious of how very much the national government can do in the development of a proper citizenship. In view of all these matters I now raise for your consideration one question, whether it is not time for the nation to make appropriation for the aid of education in the states where it is needed, and for the creation of a Department of Education empowered to direct and regulate in a more extensive manner the education of all the children of America. It seems to me that our recent experiences have taught us that education is a national as well as a state problem.

HEALTH PROBLEMS IN EDUCATION

SALLY LUCAS JEAN, CHILD HEALTH ORGANIZATION, NEW YORK, N.Y.

Not until the public was roused to the importance of keeping *well* babies well was the high mortality-rate among infants appreciably affected. We have found that the establishment of welfare stations where mothers are advised about the care of their sick babies is not an effective means of bringing about a markt drop in the death-rate. It has been proved that the weight of the baby is a most sensitive index to its general condition of health, and the weekly weighing of well babies has been an indispensable measure in the prevention of infant mortality.

Children of school age who are not living under proper hygienic conditions do not die in large numbers; they struggle against the adverse conditions which are hampering their development and lowering their vitality, and the result is a warped, stunted child or grown-up. Up to the present time it has not been found necessary systematically to examine children of

Right HEIGHT and WEIGHT for BOYS

Weights and measures should be taken without shoes and in only the usual indoor clothes. Boys should remove their coats.

Height Inches	5 Yrs.	6 Yrs.	7 Yrs.	8 Yrs.	9 Yrs.	10 Yrs.	11 Yrs.	12 Yrs.	13 Yrs.	14 Yrs.	15 Yrs.	16 Yrs.	17 Yrs.	18 Yrs.
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PREPARED BY DR. THOMAS D. WOOD

About What a BOY Should Gain Each Month

AGE	
5 to 8	6 oz.
8 to 12	8 oz.
12 to 16	16 oz.
16 to 18	8 oz.

Try and do as much better than the average as you can

These cards may be obtained from the CHILD HEALTH ORGANIZATION
289 Fourth Avenue, New York

Right HEIGHT and WEIGHT for GIRLS

Weights and measures should be taken without shoes and in only the usual indoor clothes.

Height Inches	5 Yrs.	6 Yrs.	7 Yrs.	8 Yrs.	9 Yrs.	10 Yrs.	11 Yrs.	12 Yrs.	13 Yrs.	14 Yrs.	15 Yrs.	16 Yrs.	17 Yrs.	18 Yrs.
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PREPARED BY DR. THOMAS D. WOOD

About What a GIRL Should Gain Each Month

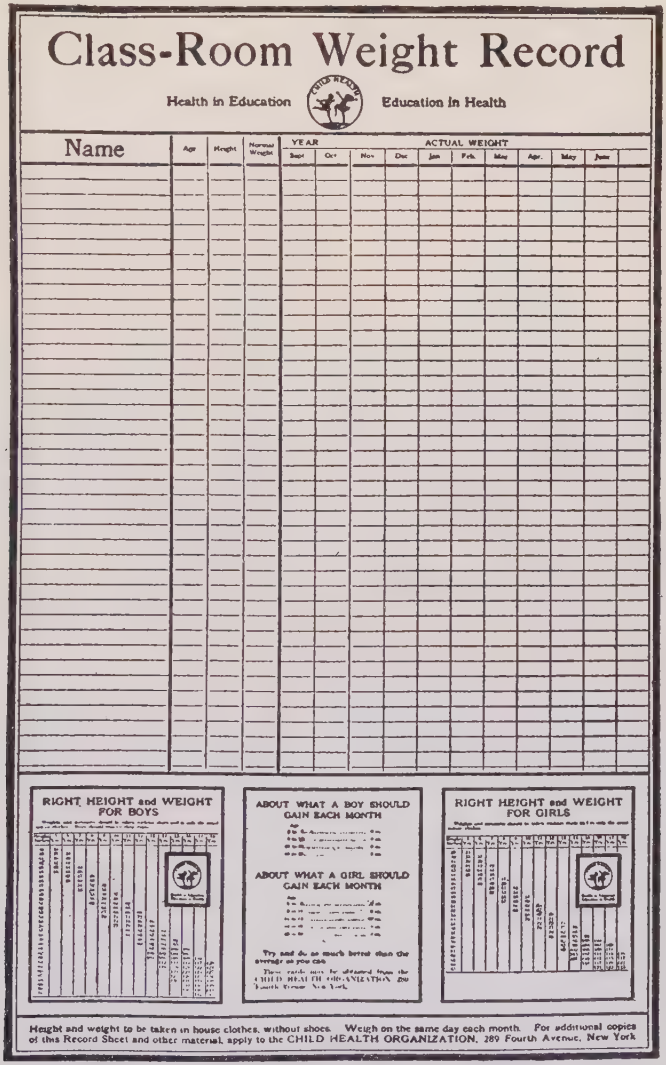
AGE	
5 to 8	6 oz.
8 to 11	8 oz.
11 to 14	12 oz.
14 to 16	8 oz.
16 to 18	4 oz.

Try and do as much better than the average as you can

These cards may be obtained from the CHILD HEALTH ORGANIZATION
289 Fourth Avenue, New York

©, *1918, by Child Health Organization*

school age except to ascertain whether physical defects existed. The weakness of our present plan is shown in the wide prevalence of malnutrition among the school children of New York and other large cities, resulting in a very high rate of tuberculosis in young adult life. The need has attracted



Class-Room Weight Record

Health in Education — Education in Health

Name	Age	Height	Normal Weight	YEAR	ACTUAL WEIGHT									
				Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	May	Apr.	May	June	

RIGHT HEIGHT and WEIGHT FOR BOYS

ABOUT WHAT A BOY SHOULD GAIN EACH MONTH

ABOUT WHAT A GIRL SHOULD GAIN EACH MONTH

Try and do as much better than the average as you can

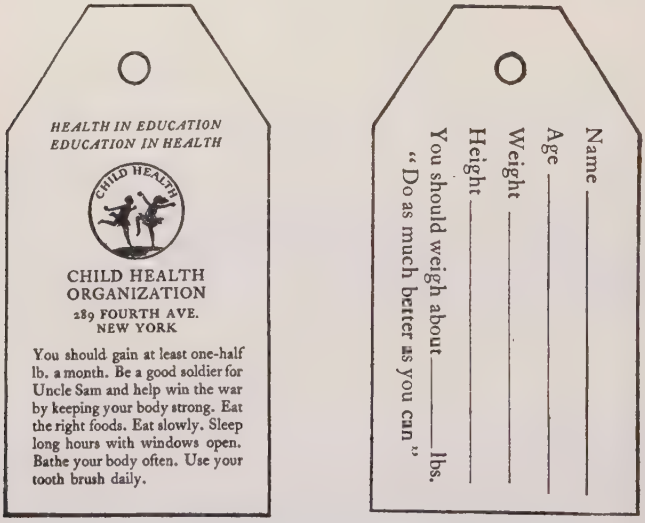
RIGHT HEIGHT and WEIGHT FOR GIRLS

Height and weight to be taken in house clothes, without shoes. Weigh on the same day each month. For additional copies of this Record Sheet and other material, apply to the CHILD HEALTH ORGANIZATION, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York

the attention of a group of child specialists, and there has been formed a national organization of physicians and laymen, with Dr. L. Emmett Holt as chairman. Its purpose is to standardize the teaching of health in elementary schools. The present scarcity of doctors and nurses throws this task of teaching health largely upon the teachers. Altho normal schools

have not usually prepared teachers for this work, its methods are so simple that they will find it practicable.

A pair of scales and a tape line gives us the necessary equipment for ascertaining the child's condition and his rate of growth. The accompanying table has been prepared by Dr. Thomas D. Wood, which makes it possible for each child to know whether he is of the average weight for his height.


HEALTH IN EDUCATION
EDUCATION IN HEALTH
CHILD HEALTH
CHILD HEALTH ORGANIZATION
289 FOURTH AVE.
NEW YORK
You should gain at least one-half lb. a month. Be a good soldier for Uncle Sam and help win the war by keeping your body strong. Eat the right foods. Eat slowly. Sleep long hours with windows open. Bathe your body often. Use your tooth brush daily.
Name
Age
Weight
Height
You should weigh about lbs.
"Do as much better as you can"

The "Class-room Weight Record" stimulates his interest thru competition.

The words used on the weight tag cover the essential points of instruction.

You should gain at least one-half a pound a month.
Eat the right foods.
Eat slowly.
Sleep long hours with windows open.
Bathe your body often.
Use your toothbrush daily.

LIBRARY DEPARTMENT

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—C. C. Certain, head of English Department, Cass Technical High School.....Detroit, Mich.
Vice-President—Lucile F. Fargo, librarian, North Central High School.....Spokane, Wash.
Secretary—Lucy E. Fay, librarian, University of Tennessee.....Nashville, Tenn.

First Session—Tuesday Forenoon, July 2

The opening meeting of the Library Department of the National Education Association was called to order in the lecture hall of the Carnegie Library by President C. C. Certain. Miss Helen Hoopes was appointed secretary *pro tem.*

Following a short musical program consisting of community and patriotic singing led by Jane Packham Alexander, contralto, Pittsburgh, Pa., the following programs were presented:

Topic: Book Selection

"Socializing Values as a Basis of Book Selection"—James F. Hosic, editor of the *English Journal*, Chicago, Ill.

"The Child and the Book in War Times"—Clara W. Hunt, superintendent, Children's Department, Public Library, Brooklyn, N.Y.

"Selecting Books for High-School Boys"—Edwin L. Miller, principal, Northwestern High School, Detroit, Mich.

Topic: Cooperation with the Junior Red Cross

"Practicable Library Cooperation with Junior Red Cross Organizations in Rural Schools"—O. S. Rice, state supervisor of school libraries, Madison, Wis.

"Report of Elementary-School Committee: Library Cooperation with the Junior Red Cross"—Annie S. Cutter, chairman, Children's Department, Public Library, Cleveland, Ohio.

Second Session, Wednesday Forenoon, July 3

Joint program with Department of Secondary Education.

"The High-School Student and the Book"—Robert J. Aley, president, University of Maine, Orono, Me.

"The Relation of the High-School Library to Modern Educational Aims"—J. A. Churchill, state superintendent of Education, Salem, Ore.

"Report of the Committee on High-School Library Standardization"—C. C. Certain, chairman, Cass Technical High School, Detroit, Mich.

Discussion of the Report:

"The Report from the Point of View of the School Administrator"—Jesse H. Newlon, superintendent of schools, Lincoln, Neb.

"The Report from the Point of View of the High-School Principal"—James Rule, principal, Schenley High School, Pittsburgh, Pa.

The report of the Library Committee on a motion by Jesse H. Newlon, duly seconded, was adopted by the two departments in joint session as a statement of national standards in high-school library development.

A motion made by Mr. Newlon, duly seconded, was then past to continue the Library Committee for the purpose of making a study of the technique of modern classroom procedure in relation to library use.

A motion was made, recorded, and carried asking for the continuance of the Committee on Red Cross Work.

THIRD SESSION, FRIDAY FORENOON, JULY 5

"War Library Service"—William H. Brett, librarian, Cleveland Public Library, Cleveland, Ohio.

"Library Cooperation with the Junior Red Cross"—Effie L. Power, head of Children's Department, Carnegie Library, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Reports of Committees:

Colleges and Universities—Harriet Wood, chairman, Library Association, Portland, Ore.

High Schools: Emphasis upon Library War Service—Mary E. Hall, chairman, Girls' High School, Brooklyn, N.Y.

The following officers were elected for the year 1918–19:

President—C. C. Certain, head of the English department, Cass Technical High School, Detroit, Mich.

Vice-President—Delia G. Ovitz, librarian of the State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

Secretary—Annie T. Eaton, librarian, Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

THE CHILD AND THE BOOK IN WAR TIMES

CLARA W. HUNT, SUPERINTENDENT, CHILDREN'S DEPARTMENT, PUBLIC LIBRARY, BROOKLYN, N.Y.

A book read by a fourteen-year-old boy was the spark that exploded the powder magazine which set on fire this world-war. So, in effect, said Garvio Prinzip, murderer of the Austrian royalties.

While the anarchist book read by Prinzip was not the "cause" of the war, books—or the lack of them—have had much to do with making the war; and the books we give our children will be enormous factors in hastening or deferring the day when wars shall cease.

The bad influence of the morally vicious book is recognized. Too few people realize the harmfulness of the mediocre reading-habit.

It takes brains as well as hearts and consciences to make strong characters. Many children's minds are being reduced to pulp by debauches of reading weak books.

Our children will not be ready for the grave problems of the future unless we teach them to think clearly, wisely, courageously. The habitual reading of many of the present-day story-books for children will make lazy-mindedness a fixt habit.

Many people have unselfish hearts but selfish minds. They are kind to suffering next door, callous to suffering across the sea. We must give to

children books of the sort that make all the world neighbors. There is a time for opening windows in the child's mind thru his imagination, and unless we begin early the child may live his life shut up in a windowless prison of narrow-mindedness.

Many children have no access at all to books. There are too many states in this Union which, from the point of view of library progress, are living in the dark ages. Teachers and librarians must work together till not only good schools but good books for home reading are free to all children in America.

We must be careful about the kind of books on this war which we give to children. Do not buy low-class battlefield thrillers tost off by the juvenile-story writer to put money into his pocket. Only a writer of serious and honest purpose should be allowed to speak to our children thru stories of the war.

SELECTING BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL BOYS

EDWIN L. MILLER, PRINCIPAL, NORTHWESTERN HIGH SCHOOL, DETROIT, MICH.

A student at Yale was once askt, "Did you take Greek?" He replied, "No, but I was exposed to it." In this anecdote there is contained the germ of the whole philosophy of books and their choice for boys. "You may lead a horse to water, but you cannot make him drink." You may print lists of the best books by the thousand, but you cannot make the boys read them. All that you can do is to expose the boys to their influence and if they take to them thank your stars, provided the result is such as you desire. A certain eminent educator has indeed suggested that it would be well to place all of the books which one desired a boy to read in a lockt bookcase and label it "Forbidden Fruit, Highly Improper for Boys." The result would always be the same—a boy would read eagerly and thoroly.

As a matter of fact, ever since I can remember I have been a reader, a lover, and a collector of books. I have not studied them for the sake of improving my mind, for that would have been impossible; I have read them in the same spirit in which boys play ball, girls dress their dolls, men attend prize fights, and women gossip about their neighbors. I have read them as Macaulay says, "with my feet on the fender." The consequence is that, logic or no logic, reason or no reason, I am convinced that it is a good thing for a boy to acquire this harmless habit.

The way to begin, it seems to me, is to expose Mr. Boy at the outset to something which he really will read for the pure fun of the thing. I suggest *Tom Sawyer* and *Huckleberry Finn*, tho several years ago, when I asked a certain high-school librarian to purchase them for her shelves, she held up her hands in horror exclaiming, "You don't expect me to put them on my shelves, do you?" I replied, "I do, What is your objection to them?" "Why," she answered, "If I were to have those among my books, they

would be in use all the time and would soon be worn out." She was quite right. There are also certain boys who like *Treasure Island*. A certain young gentleman of eight recently read Jack London's *Call of the Wild* with understanding if not with pleasure under my eye, though he knew it not, and I later found him devouring *Over the Top* and *My Four Years in Germany*. I have even seen him dipping into the *Literary Digest*.

PRACTICABLE LIBRARY COOPERATION WITH JUNIOR RED CROSS ORGANIZATIONS IN RURAL SCHOOLS

O. S. RICE, SUPERVISOR OF SCHOOL LIBRARIES, STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, MADISON, WIS.

No great work involving millions of free people can be successfully accomplisht without the wide and wise use of the printed word. This truth is strikingly illustrated in the carrying out of the many war drives since our entry into the world-war. Newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, and posters are depended upon not only for the specific purposes of any particular drive but also for the rousing of the popular mind to the war situation in general, so that the people will respond as a unit to the appeals for national action in this world-crisis.

Much is said, with good reason, concerning the necessity of maintaining the morale of the Army and Navy in order to win the war. Keeping up the morale of the civilian population is not a whit less important. Patriotic addresses, public discussions, parades, moving pictures, and the like, accomplish much toward this end; but after all the power of print is the greatest force that can be utilized to maintain the general morale in these critical times. In fact, all other agencies themselves depend for their material largely upon what appears in print.

Children who read *Over the Top* or *Private Peat* will both know and *feel* what we are fighting for and what sacrifices must be made; those who read *Florence Nightingale, the Angel of the Crimea*, will realize the dreadful conditions now prevented by the Red Cross; *Hospital Sketches*, by Louisa May Alcott, makes the work of the Red Cross nurse vividly real; the *Rhymes of a Red Cross Man* nerve to heroic action without un-Christian hate; newspapers and magazines warn against insidious enemy propaganda; bulletins, pamphlets, and posters, well chosen and used in season, point the way to practical efforts in production, conservation, and contribution.

Such reading serves the principal purpose of the Junior Red Cross organization, which is education in patriotic citizenship with practical application to the present world-crisis. To bring it about on a large scale the best attainable library service is necessary. Little has been done to this end, however, up to the present time.

The children of rural communities need the services of the printed word in this world-crisis even more than do the city children. In the country

there are fewer opportunities to hear addresses, see war "movies," etc., than in the city; and yet the rural population of our country has, per capita, only about one-fortieth of the public-library service enjoyed by city people. Vast rural areas and millions of the rural population are absolutely without public libraries. Only a relatively minor rôle then can, as a whole be played by public libraries in library cooperation with Junior Red Cross organizations in rural schools. We must look largely to other agencies for such service, at least for the present.

State traveling-library systems can do a great service for Junior Red Cross organizations in rural schools by sending to them small but well-selected collections of books suitable for promoting the aims of the Junior Red Cross. Packages of such books can be inexpensively sent by parcel post.

Loans to teachers of individual books on Red Cross topics would be a valuable way of reaching the schools. Hundreds of such loans were made during the past year by the Wisconsin Free Library Commission.

Package libraries of pamphlets and clippings would make available much Junior Red Cross material. The Extension Division of the University of Wisconsin sends out on application such packages to the schools of the state.

County traveling-library systems can be utilized on the plan recommended for state traveling libraries.

Public libraries in cities would render a valuable service by supplying Junior Red Cross material to schools in surrounding rural communities during the period of the war.

School libraries are now so general thruout the country that in their use lie great possibilities for promoting Junior Red Cross activities in rural schools. Selection of books and periodicals for such libraries and the general reading of the pupils should be based to a considerable extent on the educational aims of the Junior Red Cross. Schools should have a simple filing system to take care of war pamphlets and clippings, so that their contents may be easily available.

State young people's reading circles, by emphasizing the reading of books relating to the world-war and the various patriotic subjects connected therewith, can do a great work thru the Junior Red Cross organizations. In fact, the promotion of reading-circle activities may well be concentrated in the form of a "drive" seeking to enrol the pupils in all the schools of a state for patriotic reading under reading-circle auspices.

Junior Red Cross organizations in rural schools can be of effective service in future drives for money and books for the camp libraries administered by the American Library Association. Only public libraries have been appealed to in past drives for camp libraries. Over half the people of the country, however, reside in communities not maintaining a public library, and in such communities the Junior Red Cross organizations can well do the work.

Junior Red Cross organizations aim, above all, to give to the rising generation that vision of patriotism and duty which points the way to the relief of suffering, makes clear the issues of the world-war, teaches the ideals of true democracy, and nerves for the sacrifices necessary to make the world safe for democracy and to make democracy more and more a blessing to the world. No higher service can be rendered by library agencies than by effectively cooperating in this patriotic program. This they can best do by expanding and extending for this purpose their primary function of providing literature suitable to the needs of those whom they serve.

REPORT OF THE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL COMMITTEE: LIBRARY COOPERATION WITH THE JUNIOR RED CROSS

ANNIE S. CUTTER, CHAIRMAN, CHILDREN'S DEPARTMENT, PUBLIC LIBRARY, CLEVELAND, OHIO

It was only a little river, almost a brook; it was called the Yser. One could talk from one side to the other without raising one's voice, and the birds could fly over it with one sweep of their wings. And on the two banks there were millions of men, the one turned toward the other, eye to eye. But the distance which separated them was greater than the stars in the sky; it was the distance which separates right from injustice.

The ocean is so vast that the sea gulls do not dare to cross it. During seven days and seven nights the great steamships of America, going at full speed, drive thru the deep waters before the light houses of France come into view; but from one side to the other hearts are touching.

You are probably familiar with this letter of the fourteen-year-old French student, which is remarkable in spirit and expression for so young a girl. I quoted it because of the last sentence, "But from one side to the other hearts are touching." This expresses so simply yet so beautifully one actual good which is emerging from the present great evil—the growing oneness of the nations. We feel also the quickening everywhere of that idealism common to all nations which thru long years has always exprest itself in service and sacrifice. It is the aim of the Junior Red Cross to seize this enthusiasm for service, intensified by the great experience of war, and make it contribute toward a truer community of spirit and better world-citizenship.

Mr. McCracken says, "If history is so taught and so studied that the age-long struggle toward liberty and democracy is vital to the students and they are imprest with their potential part in it, both students and teachers are doing the highest kind of Red Cross work." How may the public library help in this highest kind of Red Cross work? Surely one way is to keep before the children well-told accounts of great patriotic deeds, not simply those performed by our own heroes of past and present days, but also those performed by the great men of other times and countries. True patriotism

means more than an emotional thrill. It is compounded of so many things; a knowledge, as well as love, of one's country; a desire to obey its laws; the wish to share its privileges with others less fortunate; the determination to serve it by courageous living. Too often in these days the finer feelings of children are blunted by a cheap emotional excitement that passes for patriotism. Are we cultivating real patriotism when we let young girls sell liberty bonds for kisses, or have school children for the climax of their parade pound nails in a dummy Kaiser's coffin?

The Junior Red Cross is counteracting just such negative, if not really destructive, influences by presenting a program of war service for children which is at once educative, patriotic, and enticing.

In considering the question of how the public library may cooperate with the Junior Red Cross, the Elementary School Committee suggests that the library's service is to make available to children in every way possible that literature which will give them an appreciation of their country's part in the "age-long struggle for democracy" and strengthen their desire to perform unselfish service. The following definite ways are suggested:

1. To place on display racks in library or school small collections of books under headings such as "Love of Country," "Men and Women of the Day," "National Holidays," "Heroes and Heroines," "Fighting for Freedom," "National Heroes."

2. To make picture bulletins illustrating some particular Red Cross activity.

3. To compile reading-lists and leaflets on such subjects as "Why We Are at War," "War-Time Changes in Commerce," "Why We Must Save Wheat," "How Boys and Girls Can Help," "How the Red Cross Helps the Soldiers and Sailors."

4. To keep on file reports and literature pertaining to the activities of the Red Cross in civilian and war relief and the part the Junior Red Cross plays in these activities.

5. To work with teachers, wherever such assistance is welcome, in planning a series of compositions on patriotic subjects and programs for national holidays.

6. To collect informational material for children's use in writing these compositions.

7. To have exhibits held in the library showing some of the work of the Junior Red Cross.

8. To provide means of coordinating Junior Red Cross activities with library war service, e.g.: (*a*) making scrapbooks for the hospitals; (*b*) making boxes in which to ship books to the soldiers; (*c*) holding meetings for sewing, knitting, scrapbook making, etc., in the library; (*d*) converting library clubs into clubs with a definite war service in view; (*e*) holding in the library exhibits of food organized by Junior Red Cross groups, with the purpose of giving tangible form to recommendations for conserving

wheat, etc. Such exhibits are especially helpful in foreign neighborhoods when the exhibits have been prepared by the foreign women.

These are some of the ways in which the library may be of service. To illustrate the kind of list that the library might prepare for teachers' use with their pupils in connection with war work the committee is presenting the beginnings of a list on "What Is Patriotism?" It is only tentative and far from complete, but we feel that the outline is such that it can be built upon and enlarged.

THE HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENT AND THE BOOK

ROBERT J. ALEY, PRESIDENT, UNIVERSITY OF MAINE, ORONO, ME.

It is a great many years since I have had close contact with high-school students. For a number of years I was a teacher and for four years principal of a high school. I have had considerable contact with high-school students after they had finisht their high-school course and had entered college.

I recall that in my high-school work the student who fell in love with the book did not give me trouble. I have found in a long experience in college and university work that the high-school graduate who comes to college invariably gives a good account of himself if he has fallen in love with the book. The other side of the story is, as many of you doubtless know, that the high-school student who is not caught by the lure of the book either leaves school without completing the course, or after graduation helps to recruit that army of young people who do nothing worth while. You also know that many of those who fail in college have not learned how to use books or have not been caught by their lure. Some time ago a young woman was assisting a professor in packing his library. She remarkt that it was curious how many people there were who gathered together great collections of books, and who seemed to have so much pleasure from them. "As for myself I care very little for books. Of course, it may be that the reason for this is that I cannot read." Books are valuable only to those who really know how to read.

Perhaps some of you may have heard Don Seitz, of the *New York World*, in that rather eccentric address of his at the Atlantic City meeting of the Department of Superintendence. Mr. Seitz insisted that the whole course of study should not only start with, but should center in, reading. Reading is the first great task. While he perhaps put it in a very emphatic form, there is, after all, much truth in his statement that the ability to read is the most fundamentally important thing in education.

I have found as a teacher that the difficulties occurring in the various fields of study are many times due to the inability to read. Some of the absurd things that come back to us in oral answers and written papers come

back because the student cannot read. Students err in some important proposition, or in the solution of some difficult problem, and a little investigation shows that they have failed simply because they have not read. I have had some experience in sending to members of faculties a written outline workt out in some detail, and have been surprised to find almost as many interpretations of the thing I had sent out as there were people to whom it had been sent. By the time the receiver had explained it to someone who had not received it, and that individual came to me, I could not recognize that I had had anything to do with starting the matter. I had similar experiences many times as superintendent of public instruction in Indiana. I had to send many communications to school officials and school teachers. Whenever these communications failed to "get over" it was either because I did not write English or because the receivers could not, or did not, read what I wrote. Reading is back of and fundamental to almost everything in education. It would greatly simplify the life of the Republic if all our people could read.

Back of any important library work there needs to be increast emphasis in the schools upon teaching young people to read. Most of us have not had experience enough in reading material that is difficult to understand. We have the newspaper habit of reading, the magazine habit of reading, the best-seller habit of reading. In this sort of reading there is no particular strain upon the gray matter. A large part of the meaning, perhaps all that is needed, may be obtained by reading a sentence here and there. One may read a best seller of the usual size in an hour and get the story well enough in mind to listen intelligently to those who rave about the book. The kind of reading that most young people actually do does not call for very much effort. It does not require much attentive study, and hence the results have no serious value.

It was William T. Harris who told this interesting story of his own experience in learning to read. Desiring to improve himself, he askt an older man in whom he had confidence to recommend a book. The book recommended was Kant's *Critique of Pure Reason.* Young Harris secured the book. He supposed from its size and appearance that it would occupy him for a few evenings. It was with confidence that he began the reading on the first evening. After some time he awoke to the realization that he was not reading. Then he backt up and tried the first page again. But he could not get an idea out of it. Then the splendid quality that made Dr. Harris a leader of philosophic thought in this country asserted itself, and he said, "I will read it." It was almost two years before he finish the book. He put considerable time on it every day and finally mastered it. "I haven't found anything hard to read since" was his comment.

Young people in high school and college need to be led to master something that is hard to read. I have great faith in the virtue of doing hard things. We have had for almost a generation soft pedagogy and soft home

discipline. They have not produced the result desired. It is still worth while to do hard things. Those boys, our friends and former students, who come back for a day or two from some cantonment where they have been several months are transformed. Eight months ago I bade goodbye to a boy. He was in my office the other day. He was a man—the kind of a man you like to see. The same transformation has already been made in two million cases and will be made in as many more cases as there are young men who are given the opportunity; and it has been made because these young men have had a splendid chance to do hard things. There is no soft pedal in an army camp. It is hard work and discipline from the beginning of one day to the beginning of the next.

If boys and girls are to come under the power of the book they must learn to read. They must have the discipline that will make it easy for them to read the difficult page. This will come if there is increast emphasis upon the teaching of reading in the grammar school and much required practice in the high school.

Boys and girls of the high school are tremendously influenst by the attitude of their teachers toward books. I do mean, not the attitude of the English teachers alone, but the attitude of all the teachers. Many young people think that it is the business of the English teacher to recommend books. They believe the commendation if it comes from someone else. It seems that the teachers of English have not wholly succeeded in creating a love for the book.

A number of us, particularly schoolboys and schoolgirls, sympathize with the view exprest by a writer in the *Nation*. He made a very strong plea for a markt reduction in the required English readings in high school. His reason was that there might be left some good things to be enjoyed after school days are over. Did you ever know a high-school student to treasure the classic that he had read in school? Generally the day after the examination there is a glut in the second-hand market on the classic covered. The book is sold, and the student never wants to see it again. I don't blame him very much. I re-read Dante recently; I stopped several times in the reading and tried to imagine how fine it would be if I were reading in order that some school teacher might examine me or inquire of me just what Dante meant and just why Dante used a particular word. Too much work in literature is of this sort.

I shall not attempt to discuss at any length the mechanical side of library management. I regard it as a fortunate change that librarians no longer regard the books as their personal property which must, at all cost, be protected from the contaminating touch of the reader. The reader should and generally does have free access to the shelves. It is by this free access that the student learns something of the range of literature and knowledge and gets a speaking acquaintance with books of which he would otherwise know nothing. My own richest book experiences have come in

that way. Exposure to books is a great thing. The librarian and the teacher should unite to make this exposure as great as possible.

I have said nothing about the reference library, or its use. I think this is fairly well cared for everywhere. Recent developments in teaching have tended to make a greater and greater use of recorded knowledge. The use of the book as a reference, as well as interest in books in general, will depend upon the intensity of desire created in the student. We have at the University a training detachment of two hundred United States soldiers. They are being trained as soldiers and also as mechanicians. These men have an intense interest in the thing they are preparing to do. They have a long and fully occupied day from 5:45 A.M. to 8:00 P.M. These men use the library for a definite purpose. They want authoritative answers to questions in carpentry, blacksmithing, auto-mechanics, electrical wiring, gas-engine theory and practice, etc. Such knowledge attained guarantees to the possessor a better assignment and greater certainty of promotion.

If in school and college we could create desire and establish definite purpose in the student we might make the reference library a great power in education. The librarian should patiently and carefully teach the student how to use the reference book. Many intelligent and fairly well-educated people are almost helpless in the presence of a dictionary, encyclopedia, or other book of reference. The query pages of newspapers and magazines furnish ample verification of this statement.

The reader and lover of the book is a safe and valuable citizen. Our duty is to see to it that our scholars have every opportunity to know the books, to be expert in using them, and to come under the influence of their charm and power.

THE RELATION OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY TO MODERN EDUCATIONAL AIMS

J. A. CHURCHILL, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION, SALEM, ORE.

"A just judge always seeks to increase his jurisdiction." This old saying is the assumption that one who can do his work efficiently assumes that he owes it to himself to enlarge his opportunities for service, in order that he may fill a larger sphere of usefulness and perform duties that may not be rendered so well by others. Instead of visualizing clearly the definite ends of his particular work and striving daily for their accomplishment, he too often attempts to do the work that falls wholly within the responsibilities of others, with the result that his efforts are scattered and his work ineffective.

This criticism may apply to the high-school library. Too often it attempts to duplicate the service of the public library. If it functions as a high-school library it will so supplement the work of the school that it

will meet all of its special needs. It will leave to the public library all the kinds of work that are to be continued after school. The high-school librarian must confine herself to certain definite lines on account of three limitations: (1) The number of books in her library service is small as compared with that of the public library. (2) Four years is all the time she can have out of the student's life, and each of those four years is closed to her for several months each year. (3) She can have but a small part of his time each day, as his school hours are full of activities outside of the library. What then can the library do within these limits?

First of all, there can be no effective high-school library unless it has a librarian whose full time is devoted to its work. A fine building splendidly equipt cannot make a school. An intelligent group of well-mannered children cannot make it. The teacher makes the school; if he be well trained, has had a good preparation, has physical strength, enthusiasm, and love for his work, the community in which he teaches will have a good school, even tho the school plant be inadequate. The librarian makes the high-school library; for the kind of service she renders determines its measure as an educational asset. She must not only have been trained for her work, but have had experience as a librarian, that she may have a wide knowledge of books, the bibliography of the high-school subjects, and a human interest in the pupil. She must be a capable director of good reading and inspire an interest in good books. With all these qualities and with all the knowledge she may possess she will fail unless she is really eager to open the world of books to young people with different tastes and environments, and unless she knows her books so thoroly that she gives the right books to the right pupil at the right time. She should have the same college preparation as the other members of the high-school corps, and in addition she should bring to her work two years of full professional training guaranteed by an approved library school. It is a wise economy on the part of school boards employing ten or more teachers in a high school to secure such a trained librarian who will give her full time to contributing to the success of the work by intelligently cooperating with teachers of all subjects.

One of the aims of education is to open the mind of the pupil to the possibilities of life, professionally, socially, and vocationally. He must be so taught that he will understand that his chief aim in life is to prepare not for a business or a profession but for life; for work in the group for his own good and the advantage of others.

History must be so taught that it furnishes a basis for the development of intelligent civic patriotism that puts the student more fully in touch with his political, civil, and industrial environment. Each section of every state should devote much attention to preserving such of its stories and traditions as will contribute to the understanding of the broader and more general movements in our national history, for there is little of value in the study of any history that may not be connected with the child's present

or future environment. The stories of the sacrifices and achievements of those who subdued the Middle and the Far West will interpret the struggles of the Pilgrim Fathers and Pilgrim Mothers and are just as noble and worthy. Assistance in gathering the local material and in assembling it falls within the scope of the high-school library.

Strong emphasis on the relations of the individual as a member of the group must henceforth be the prominent feature in the teaching of civics. The rights, duties, and liberties of every individual are linkt with the laws, conventions, and requirements of society, and no one can radically separate himself from his social fellows. Anarchy is the failure to recognize the interdependent relation in the development of the individual. Without such recognition there can be no family, community, state, or national life. In our present great crisis we are thinking less and less in terms of the individual and more and more in terms of the nation.

The future economic structure of society is largely within the keeping of the high schools of today, for those who are now in school are to be called upon for such a large contribution in the reconstruction of the world. It is a wonderful opportunity to be young now and on the threshold of great possibilities for achievement. It is a glorious privilege for those who are older to set the feet of the young people in the right path, fitting them for the rich accomplishments that are to be theirs.

Thru all the preparation for this gigantic task, with its scientific preparation for citizenship, the teachers of literature are still the persons who give the inspiration. The rich heritage of vision, knowledge of mankind, sound judgments, justice, and wisdom must come from them. If this be our aim, it is clear that a textbook alone and a great teacher are not sufficient, but that a finely selected library and well-directed outside reading are necessary. For an intellectual comprehension of our world-situation the young citizen must have supervised independent reading; for the supreme object of his study of literature is to have him realize the beauty of literature as an interpretation of life.

Another chief aim of the high-school library is to make sure that there is to be a continuation of education beyond the high school. The young citizen should have definite plans for continuing his education thru the public library and be thoroly imprest with the importance of following them. In a western high school with an enrolment of more than three hundred a careful inquiry disclosed the fact that out of all those pursuing higher learning 90 per cent never entered the public library and took little or no interest in the communities' activities.

It is the duty of the high-school librarian to stimulate and, so far as possible, to direct the vacation reading of the pupil. When he finally leaves school he should go with well-defined plans for continuing his reading and should be turned over to the public librarian, with whom the high-school librarian works always in helpful cooperation.

HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY STANDARDIZATION AIMS FROM THE POINT OF VIEW OF THE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

JESSE H. NEWLON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, LINCOLN, NEB.

(*Discussion of Committee Report*)

In the erection of high schools in the past a fair provision has been made for the accommodation of the sciences and the practical arts. The planning and equipment of shops and laboratories have been standardized. School boards and superintendents have found it possible to obtain definite information as to the demands of science and practical-arts instruction in schools. There have been standards relating to the number and the types of various rooms and shops, to their lighting, heating, and ventilation, to the arrangement of floor space and of window and wall space, to their equipment to the minutest detail. The result has been excellent shops and laboratories.

The library is the laboratory of the social sciences, English, the languages, art, and indeed of practically every other subject taught in the secondary school. It will be impossible adequately to socialize methods of instruction and to cultivate fully the initiative and originality of pupils in these subjects without an adequate library properly administered.

Outside of some of the newer, large high schools there are very few well-planned libraries. We have had no standards of plans and equipment. This report sets up definite standards relating to the materials that should be found in libraries in schools of various sizes. It will furnish school executives with authoritative information as to the needs of high-school libraries, with the result that in making the annual budget and in designing schools they can be guided by authoritative information. We may now expect good libraries.

To my mind the committee has completed only one-half of its work. Its next important task is to investigate the best methods of using the high-school libraries. It is one thing to secure adequate reference books and materials and another to develop an effective technique for their use. The latter is a big problem, and the success of the high-school library depends upon it quite as much as upon the material equipment. In most schools such technique has not been developt. Its development involves the training of high-school librarians and teachers and the working out of methods of cooperation between the librarian and the teacher. This committee should be continued with instructions to take up the consideration of this important problem.

WAR LIBRARY SERVICE

WILLIAM H. BRETT, LIBRARIAN, CLEVELAND PUBLIC LIBRARY, CLEVELAND, OHIO

American libraries have greater opportunities than ever before. It is their duty to carry on the work at home more fully, to provide information about the war, and to help educate public sentiment for its support; to provide technical and military books—books on food production and conservation; to help in Red Cross drives, Liberty Bond sales, and every patriotic work, and with it all to carry on the normal work of the library.

Our home folk need relief from the strain and stress of war work, from the anxiety they now feel, from the sorrow which is inevitable. They need the relaxation, the consolation, the inspiration, of good books.

To this is added the work of supplying our men in camp and field and fleet here and overseas. The libraries of this country, united in the American Library Association, took up this work as soon as our country went into the war. The Association carried on a campaign for money which produced over $1,700,000. It has erected 36 camp library buildings and is serving more than 553 camps, stations, and vessels. It has sent nearly 200,000 selected books overseas, has purchast over 300,000 volumes, mostly military, naval, and other technical books, and has sent to camps and stations nearly 2,000,000 books and 5,000,000 magazines.

All this work is under the charge of Dr. Herbert Putnam, Librarian of Congress, with headquarters in Washington at the Library of Congress Building. Dr. Putnam is serving without compensation, and more than one hundred and fifty librarians from different parts of the country are in the service; the services of many of these are volunteered personally or are supplied by their libraries. The Library Association will institute a campaign, within a short time, for a fund of $3,000,000 to continue and increase this great work.

The schools have cooperated very cordially and effectively with the libraries in the campaigns for supplying books for our soldiers and sailors, as they have in so many other things.

The men are eager for books, the need is immediate and they are most gratefully received and appreciated. This need will continue as long as the war lasts, and I am sure that we shall receive the continued support of the schools.

LIBRARY COOPERATION WITH THE JUNIOR RED CROSS

EFFIE L. POWER, HEAD, CHILDREN'S DEPARTMENT, CARNEGIE LIBRARY PITTSBURGH, PA.

In a little book called *Adrift on an Ice-Pan,* Doctor Grenfell, the great medical missionary to Labrador, tells how he once faced death in a field of floating ice. The big thing he expresses is what religion is and how it

actually helps a man in a crisis. In interpreting this Dr. Grenfell relates an experience of having recalled to his mind, in his extreme trial, a hymn which was an unconscious memory of boyhood days. In the enrichment of the subconscious self (or soul) lies the reward of great literature.

For many years the public libraries in this country have placed before children the best of books, secure in the belief in their power to prepare the children to meet the emergencies of life. Looking back over an experience of twenty or more years in various children's rooms the writer can recall many a tousled head buried deep in a dingy volume and bright eyes meeting hers in mutual admiration of a great story-book hero. Of these browsers among books one is now "flying for France"; one is directing a battalion of men in an American training camp; one is organizing a department of industry for the national government. Have they forgotten their boyish dreams of Perseus who slew the dragon which was devastating his country? Or of Hercules, who battled with the hundred-headed serpent and before Troy, and who was not ashamed to clean the king's stable? Or of King Arthur, honorable and gentle knight? Or of Beowulf, "bold to rashness for himself, prudent for his comrades, daring, resourceful, knowing no fear, loyal to his king"? No! The young men of today are meeting the emergency of war with an idealism that shows a marvelous spiritual background. This has not been gained overnight thru the beating of drums but is the result of gradual growth by the grace of God, and in this growth good books have played their part.

The reading of great books stimulates and directs the imagination, and it is the properly stimulated imagination of the children which the Junior Red Cross organization expects to turn into channels of constructive patriotic service. Library service can assist the Junior Red Cross (1) by promoting the reading of great heroic literature; (2) by properly informing children regarding their national life; (3) by training children to be useful members of society; (4) by keeping children normal in war time thru recreative reading, story hours, reading clubs, etc.

These aims are not new ones, but present conditions have placed new emphasis upon them. The public library is accepted as a great democratic institution where children of all nationalities, classes, and creeds mingle and thru the free use of books and equipment are taught to respect and preserve public property. The attendance is voluntary, but groups are organized for story hours, poetry hours, and reading clubs. Books on history, biography, and civics are generously provided, and the process of Americanization among the little new citizens is an interesting feature to observe. The times demand, however, that children's librarians shall intensify their interest and effort in order that no opportunity shall be lost or past lightly over, and that time may be saved for the children for other lines of activity required of them.

To carry out this plan the following program of reading is suggested:

1. Heroic and patriotic literature which shall make a strong emotional appeal.

2. Books of American history and travel which shall fully inform the reader.

3. Accounts of critical periods in the history of the world, selected to show loyalty to the country.

4. Accounts of critical periods in American history.

5. Biographies of heroes and heroines of service.

6. Autobiographies of New Americans.

7. Popular books on civics, showing duties and privileges of Americans. Books on handicrafts, teaching Red Cross activities.

8. Modern patriotic poems, speeches, letters, and narratives.

9. General recreative reading.

The method of procedure to be followed in presenting this literature to Junior Red Cross members should be the usual one followed in well-organized children's departments. They may include the purchase of books in attractive editions, the setting aside of special shelves attractively labeled, the use of posters, the preparation and distribution of lists, special story hours, lectures, etc.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—ARTHUR A. CHAMBERLAIN, editor, *Sierra Educational News*..San Francisco, Calif.
Secretary—GEORGE L. TOWNE, editor, *Nebraska Teacher*.....Lincoln, Nebr.

The Department of Educational Publications went into session Wednesday forenoon, July 3, 1918.

The meeting was called to order, as scheduled at the Schenley High School by President Arthur H. Chamberlain.

The program as announced in the *Official Bulletin* was carried out.

The first address was made by Superintendent Fred M. Hunter, of Oakland, Calif., on "Needed Modifications in Textbooks as Shown by the War." This paper was discust by a number of superintendents and educational publishers.

The second main address of the morning was given by Superintendent W. M. Davidson, of Pittsburgh, on "Should the Textbooks in United States History Be Re-written?"

After a general discussion of Dr. Davidson's address the meeting adjourned.

GEORGE L. TOWNE, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

NEEDED MODIFICATIONS IN TEXTBOOKS AS SHOWN BY THE WAR

FRED M. HUNTER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, OAKLAND, CALIF.

In the educational world the war has made evolution, revolution. Curriculums, classroom methods, and administrative policies have changed over night. The change has had two markt characteristics, the crystallization and incorporation of the national ideals in the work of the schools, and a mighty breaking of the shackles of tradition. Powerful and well-establisht institutions tend to glorify and preserve traditions. The public school system, for various and obvious reasons, has been a tradition worshiper. Textbook publishers have been both a result of this tendency and a contributing agent in cementing it more firmly upon the school system. Publishers in many noteworthy instances have been leaders and guides in great forward movements, but in general publishers of textbooks have explored new fields rather conservatively—have awaited the firm establishment of a movement before risking their investment or their dividends in the new field.

Now, however the revolution with a new régime is upon us, and publishers, responding with all the rest of us to the patriotic spur, are asking "What do these things mean? What can we do to be saved?"

The answer seems to me to be obvious: First, be iconoclasts of the traditional idols, not worshipers at the shrine and mere recorders of the sacred rites, and fear not investment in a good cause, even tho it does not reveal immediate dividends. Secondly, make all your works serve first the great national purposes and ideals of our democracy.

Let us now analyze the meaning of such an attitude and policy a little more closely. In seeking to incorporate the national ideals and ideals of community service in the actual production of textbooks publishers must understand and be in accord with the new administrational policies and the general policy of curriculum-making and of developing classroom methods. Good textbooks produced in accordance with these ideals should make easy the advance now taking place in these fields. The publisher who subscribes to these ideals to the point of action becomes a co-leader in establishing a new administrational policy in our state and city school systems—a fellow-maker of curriculums with the teacher and supervisor and an agent of the nation and state in establishing a proper civic attitude of service and loyalty thru classroom instruction. Hence publishers, together with other educational leaders, administrators, and teachers, must analyze carefully the changes now in progress and plan policy and action accordingly.

Such analysis must consider first wherein our schools have shown themselves defective and must attempt to define clearly the new point of attack.

Our great national crisis has shown us the defects in our system of education as it has brought us into realization of the tremendously responsible relation between public education and nationality. Everybody knows that we have no thorogoing machinery for Americanization. The patriotic spirit of every community has revolted at the un-American sentiment that has been evident wherever patriotic pressure has become intense. The terrible danger that lurks in our large unamalgamated elements is no longer apparent only to the students of sociality. It is now a part of our public consciousness.

That 13 per cent of our national population is foreign-born or children of the first generation of foreign parentage, and that 30 per cent of these are illiterate, is not conducive to smug satisfaction either on the part of the public or on the part of those responsible for our educational machinery. Thus the first great defect in the organization of our schools and its relation to national life is shown by the lack of a well-developt system for Americanization.

The second great defect is the failure of our schools to cover thoroly their field; that is, their failure to provide for all American youth up to an age nearing maturity a fairly adequate training for citizenship. The experiments made in the states that have begun a system of industrial

education have brought the conclusion that such training should extend to the age of eighteen for all the youth in our land. The Massachusetts Registration of Minors, the Wisconsin Continuation Law, and similar steps taken by various cities and communities place the legislative stamp of approval upon these conceptions.

How signal has been the failure of public education completely to carry out such conceptions is shown by every investigation upon this point. We have been all too familiar with the situation in the communities with which we are acquainted. One of the most recent of these investigations, that by C. D. Jarvis, the results of which are publisht by the Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 2, 1917, covers fifteen thousand children who have left school in eleven different states. Mr. Jarvis' conclusion is this:

> Eight and one-half per cent of the children *desire* to leave school, and of these 34 per cent frankly state that they do not like school, 60 per cent would rather go to work. Of those who intend to leave during the current year, approximately one-third claim economic necessity as the reason, and, except for a small portion who leave on account of illness or some unmentioned reason, the remainder leave on account of dissatisfaction exprest or implied.

Even yet we force upon the schools of our congested industrial districts the same curricula that are offered in the schools peopled by the children of the so-called best families. Even yet our high schools still maintain in most sections of the country their hard-and-fast regulations as to entrance into the high school as to graduation, as to promotion, and as to variations of curricula to meet group needs.

The first demand growing out of our recognition of national purposes and school defects is this: The curriculum shall be an organized series of practices and activities rather than a body of knowledge based upon the principle that action alone is educative. The government has called upon us to incorporate, not as additions to our curriculum, but as integral parts of it, pupil organizations for carrying on Liberty Loan drives, Red Cross campaigns, sales of War Savings Stamps, and the like. School-garden armies and the Boys' Working Reserve have been organized. In fact, to the teacher who has been thinking in terms of the past there has seemed to be no time whatever for school work. The government has been remaking our curricula for us before our very eyes. It has been forcing into our classrooms activities which have done more in the past six months in training for real citizenship than all our laboriously devised schedules of social studies have done in the past five years. The principle involved is a new definition of the curriculum, and that definition has come to stay. It will not only be written in the reports of superintendents but will be actually practist in the classrooms of the schools.

The second principle involved in the new demand is that of variation. This principle of variation, as opposed to uniformity, will guide the curriculum-making of the future upon two definite planes: First, curricula

will vary in accordance with the individual needs or, in more practical terms, the group needs of boys and girls as determined by social inheritance, economic environment, and natural tendencies. Secondly, curricula will vary in the respective organizational units in accordance with the varying needs of the communities in which such units are located. In no other way can a proper machinery for Americanization and for universal training for citizenship be developt.

The third principle in curriculum-making under the new demands will be this: curricula will be made by classroom teachers, or their respective committees, who are studying the needs of children by first-hand contact. In our industrial districts, where neighborhood and community centers will develop at a rapid pace, groups of teachers themselves must decide curricula.

Classroom and laboratory practices must not cease abruptly with the graduation of the pupil or his elimination from the school. Continuation and part-time classes must become a universal habit on the part of our public educational system. The laboratory must gradually grade into the shop, so that the student who goes into industry may go to the continuation or evening classes of the school for inspiration and help until he is aged and infirm. The home and the school must be so closely united that the habits of home life can still be reacht thru neighborhood classes, thru classes in mother-craft and dietetics, and thru home clubs conducted in the schools. Public education must offer service to all classes of Americans who need service.

Textbook publishers are called upon to decide whether or not their chief objective should be commercial. Here lie plainly before them the educational objectives of our public school system as they are defined by our national government and the responsibility placed upon public education. Here are the principles underlying the changes taking place in the work of the schools. If publishers continue as in the past to cater to a sure market without risking the principles of good business and certain profits, they will continue to be as in the past mainly the recorders of tradition. If they prefer to adopt as their purposes the purposes now clearly defined for the schools and the principles of curriculum-making and method, if they will break tradition and cast into the scrapheap most of the school publications of the past, there is a great place in the ranks of education for them—even if not a reward in increast dividends and enlarged profits.

Subscription to these objectives and principles requires a new code for the formulation of textbooks. In the overstock of available textbooks at the present time the chief feature in classification and make-up is subject-matter. Say what you will about teachers "teaching children" not subject-matter. The chief characteristic of all the mass of printed books for schoolroom use is their division into subjects and the logical and proper presentation of those subjects.

None of them thus far—or not at least until the last few months—have been planned and executed around a series of projects in themselves worth doing in any community and of natural interest and appeal to children.

None of them have been addrest primarily to children in child language, with the chief activities suggested rather than completely exprest in terms of adult logic.

None of them have placed real emphasis on child initiative, child judgment, and child organization. Such of them as have made attempts in this line have made the projects used carefully subservient to certain principles and facts of logically outlined subject-matter which the author mistakenly deemed essential to the development and happiness of young life.

None of them have set high ideals, personal character, and the spirit of community and national service—in brief, citizenship by practice—above information and everything else and made subject-matter a mere incident and means of accomplishment.

In the new code suggested for adoption the central emphasis is to be placed upon these ideals unrecognized in practice in education and only of late given any great prominence in modern educational philosophy. Such a code for the making of textbooks should make the following provisions:

1. That every suggested activity have moral and civic motive. These motives may not be recognized by the child as moral except as the activity provided connects itself with some child interest or principle which is in itself worth accomplishing from the child's point of view. The pull of interest and the ultimate moral principle must always be present, or the activity is unmotivated and compelled, and useless from an educational standpoint.

The development, thru the practicing of interesting and motivated activities, of a patriotic spirit of service and a moral and personal fitness for such service is the common element that should run thru all textbook-making, no matter what the age of the student or what class of population the text may be prepared for.

2. That great emphasis shall be placed on pupil initiative citizens of a democracy are to be taught by means of constant practice to assume responsibility, make choices, and undertake organization. Textbooks which merely give direction and assume obedience, with the hope of inculcating knowledge or developing skill can never make an efficient, self-reliant well-trained citizenship. Textbooks must therefore be addrest largely to the pupils, coucht in the pupil's language, suggestive of a wide range of pupil interest. They must be of the laboratory type, offering wide range of choices in projects and problems, for the schools are to be the laboratories of democracy.

3. That the material of textbooks consist of series of suggested projects, of themselves worth while in the school community, or the larger community outside, and of impelling interest to the varying types of child life. This

means the obliteration of school subjects as such, except in the realm of scientific research and specialization. Subject-matter in such a scheme must necessarily be incidental. The materials of geography, of history, of literature, all come into play, because they may be of assistance in giving foundation for civic attitudes for appreciation of the present, for planning for the future. Subject-matter of the mechanical type is necessary too, such as arithmetic, mechanics of reading, etc., because without them skill cannot be developt that will solve the individual or community problem presented. They are not, however to be all-important because they are arithmetic, or geography, or spelling, or because child life will not develop happily and beautifully and usefully unless a modicum of them is pounded into their craniums. These subjects are to be involved because they help child life in an activity that works out a useful project, an activity that develops the pupil into a more useful, patriotic citizen.

4. That grades and classifications of textbooks shall be upon a new basis. Obliteration of subjects as a basis of classification will mean the adoption of another set of bases. Let me suggest these: (*a*) things to be done in the school and community instead of subjects; (*b*) mental capacities and measured intelligence instead of grades or classes; (*c*) kinds of neighborhood or types of school instead of uniformity.

DEPARTMENT OF THE WIDER USE OF SCHOOL HOUSES

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

Vice-President—Charles C. Kelson, director of social center .....Los Angeles, Calif.
Secretary—Raymond F. Crist, deputy commissioner of naturalization....Washington, D.C.

Wednesday Forenoon, July 3

The Program consisted of a general discussion of the "Wider Use of Schoolhouses" and of the "Purposes of the Bureau of Naturalization in Extending the Influence of This Department." The usual business meeting was held, at which the following officers were elected:

President—Raymond F. Crist, deputy commissioner of naturalization, Bureau of Naturalization, Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.

Vice-President—Charles C. Kelson, principal, Los Angeles public schools, Los Angeles, Calif.

Secretary—Mrs. Margarita Spaulding Gerry, Board of Education, 2944 Macomb Street, Washington, D.C.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

ATLANTIC CITY MEETING, FEBRUARY 25–MARCH 2, 1918

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—THOMAS E. FINEGAN, deputy commissioner of education ..... Albany N.Y.
Vice-President—A. A. MCDONALD, superintendent of schools ..... Sioux Falls, S.Dak.
Second Vice-President—CARLOS M. COLE, superintendent of schools ..... Denver, Colo.
Secretary—LIDA LEE TALL, supervisor of grammar grades ..... Baltimore, Md.

FIRST DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

EVENING SESSION—TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 26, 1918

The Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association met on Young's Million Dollar Pier, Atlantic City, N.J., at 8:00 p.m., President Thomas E. Finegan, deputy superintendent of schools, Albany, N.Y., presiding.

A preliminary musical program of community and patriotic singing, led by A. J. Gantvoort, was participated in by the audience.

The session opened with an invocation by Rev. Henry M. Mellen, pastor of the First Presbyterian Church.

Addresses of welcome were given by Harry Bacharach, mayor of Atlantic City, and Calvin N. Kendall, state commissioner of education, Trenton, N.J., to which response was made by Mary C. C. Bradford, president of the National Education Association.

Charles S. Whitman, governor of the state of New York, Albany, N.Y., delivered the address of the evening.

After Governor Whitman's address Mortimer E. Cooley, dean of the School of Engineering, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich., gave a talk on "The Shortage of Trained Engineers."

President Finegan announst the following committees:

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

F. B. Pearson, state superintendent of public instruction, Columbus, Ohio.
H. S. Weet, superintendent of schools, Rochester, N.Y.
Josephine C. Preston, state superintendent of public instruction, Olympia, Wash.
John W. Withers, superintendent of schools, St. Louis, Mo.
C. P. Cary, state superintendent of public instruction, Madison, Wis.
Henry Snyder, superintendent of schools, Jersey City, N.J.
Frank E. Spaulding, superintendent of schools, Cleveland, Ohio.

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

A. N. Cody, superintendent of schools, Flint, Mich.
D. J. Kelly, superintendent of schools, Binghamton, N.Y.
R. W. Heimlich, superintendent of schools, Fort Wayne, Ind.
E. A. Smith, superintendent of schools, Salt Lake City, Utah.
S. J. Slawson, superintendent of schools, Bridgeport, Conn.

SECOND DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

MORNING SESSION—Wednesday, February 27, 1918

A preliminary musical program of community and patriotic singing, led by A. J. Gantvoort, was participated in by the audience.

The following program was presented:

Topic: Centralizing Tendencies in Educational Administration

a) "Limitations of State Control in Education"—Payson Smith, state commissioner of education, Boston, Mass.

b) "The County as a Unit for Local Administration"—Albert S. Cook, superintendent of Baltimore County Public Schools, Towson, Md.

c) "The Township as a Unit for Local Administration"—R. B. Teitrick, deputy state superintendent of public instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

d) "How a State Department May Stimulate Local Initiative and Increase Efficiency"—George D. Strayer, professor of educational administration, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

Discussion—C. P. Cary, state superintendent of public instruction, Madison, Wis.; J. Y. Joyner, state superintendent of public instruction, Raleigh, N.C.; Edith K. O. Clark, state superintendent of public instruction, Cheyenne, Wyo.; A. A. McDonald, superintendent of schools, Sioux Falls, S.Dak.; Charl O. Williams, county superintendent of schools, Memphis, Tenn.

A four-minute talk was given by William McCormick Blair, national director of the Four Minute Men, Chicago, Ill.

A five-minute talk was given by Robert McElroy, chairman of the Committee on Patriotic Education of the National Security League, Princeton, N.J.

AFTERNOON SESSION—Wednesday, February 27, 1918

After the preliminary musical program of community and patriotic singing by the audience, led by A. J. Gantvoort, the following program was presented:

Topic: Opportunity and Leadership in American Education

a) "The Place of the Privately Supported and Managed Institution"—Alexander Meiklejohn, president, Amherst College, Amherst, Mass.

b) "The Place of the State Supported and Managed Institution"—Benjamin Ide Wheeler, president, University of California, Berkeley, Calif.

c) "The Place of the Educational Institution for Women"—Kathryn Sisson McLean, dean of women, Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio.

d) "The Place of the Educational Foundation"—Clyde Furst, secretary, Carnegie Foundation, New York, N.Y.

e) "The View of the Entire Situation from the Outside"—Don C. Seitz, Editor, *The World*, New York, N.Y.

EVENING SESSION—Wednesday, February 27, 1918

After the preliminary musical program of community and patriotic singing by the audience, led by A. J. Gantvoort, the following program was presented:

"Re-education of Crippled Soldiers"—Major Wilson H. Henderson, War Department, Washington, D.C.

"Education during the War"—P. P. Claxton, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D.C.

Mademoiselle Clement, of Bordeaux, France, spoke for five minutes on the reasons for extending the teaching of French in this country, due to the war situation.

Greetings from Canada were presented by A. Kennedy, inspector of schools for Saskatchewan, Weyburn, Canada, in which he said in part: "As our countries lie side by side; as our boys fight side by side; as our flags hang side by side—so may our teachers work side by side."

President Finegan appointed the following committee to represent the Department of Superintendence in cooperation with members of a commission appointed by the National Education Association to consider constructive educational principles growing out of the war:

Payson Smith, commissioner of education, Boston, Mass.
Josephine C. Preston, state superintendent of public instruction, Olympia, Wash.
F. E. Spaulding, superintendent of schools, Cleveland, Ohio.
J. A. C. Chandler, superintendent of schools, Richmond, Va.
J. M. Gwinn, superintendent of schools, New Orleans, La.
J. W. Withers, superintendent of schools, St. Louis, Mo.
F. D. Boynton, superintendent of schools, Ithaca, N.Y.

THIRD DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

MORNING SESSION—THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 28, 1918

The morning session was devoted to the reports of committees and to the annual business meeting.

"Report of the Committee on Economy of Time in Elementary Education"—H. B. Wilson, superintendent of schools, Topeka, Kans., *chairman*.

"Economy in Learning in Relation to Economy of Time"—Ernest Horn, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

"The Problem-Project Attack in Organization, Subject-Matter, and Teaching"—William H. Kilpatrick, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

"School Practice as Affected by the Reports of the Committee on Economy of Time"—J. H. Withers, superintendent of schools, St. Louis, Mo.; Calvin N. Kendall, state commissioner of education, Trenton, N.J.

The report of the Committee on Organization of the National Education Association was presented by William B. Owen, president, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill., *chairman*. A general discussion was opened by Robert J. Aley, president, University of Maine, Orono, Me. Durand W. Springer, educational director of Camp Custer, and former secretary of the National Education Association, offered some suggestions to the report. At this point Mr. Owen stated that Mr. Springer's suggestions would be printed with his report. The spirit of the report of the committee was approved by vote of the department and recommended to the meeting at Pittsburgh for final consideration.

The report of the Committee on Publicity was presented by Charles J. Judd, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill., *executive secretary*, who moved that the work of his committee be accepted and the committee be retained to continue its work. There was no discussion and the motion was carried.

The report of the Commission on Administrative Legislation was presented by Charles E. Chadsey, superintendent of schools, Detroit, Mich., *chairman*, who moved that his report be accepted and printed in the *Proceedings*, and that the Commission be continued another year to complete its study of the question of a model school law and submit a special report concerning this subject. There was no discussion and the motion carried.

The report of the Committee on Cooperation with School Boards was presented by Fred M. Hunter, superintendent of schools, Oakland, Calif., *chairman*. The report was accepted.

The annual business meeting followed the program.

The Committee on Nominations reported as follows thru the chairman, A. N. Cody:

President—E. C. Hartwell, superintendent of schools, St. Paul, Minn.
First Vice-President—D. B. Corson, acting superintendent of schools, Newark, N.J.
Second Vice-President—J. R. Morgan, superintendent of schools, Trinidad, Colo.
Secretary—Marie Gugle, assistant superintendent of schools, Columbus, Ohio.

The report of the committee was accepted unanimously.

The following report of the Committee on Resolutions was adopted as presented by F. B. Pearson, *chairman:*

In this time of stress and anxiety we pledge anew our loyal support to every movement, such as the Junior Red Cross and War Savings, whose objectives are a triumphant victory and the preparation of our people for the subsequent peace. We shall hail the day when every person who claims the protection of our flag will be deeply imbued with real Americanism and with a patriotism that will smile in the face of sacrifice. We pledge our best efforts to hasten the day when all our people will be able to speak, read, and write our language and will thrill at the sight of our flag. It shall be our aim to train the youth of our land that they may have strong bodies, clear minds, and clean spirits. We shall renew our efforts to eliminate waste in every form, whether of resources, time, or energies, and to strive toward a civilization that thinks soberly, plans wisely, acts righteously, and has won immunity from the frivolous, the superficial, and the artificial. We shall do our utmost to banish ignorance and idleness that we may become a nation of intelligent, thrifty, efficient workers. In the reconstruction period that lies just ahead, there will be no place for slacking in our ranks, but every teacher must be both able and willing to assume his full share of responsibility in making our school work more vital, that it may most effectively aid in the life-processes. To this end we call upon all our people to see to it that there is no relaxing of educational standards and that school work may not be subordinated to other activities. We need to intensify our work and transform dull routine into pulsing energy. We call upon our colleges and normal schools, therefore, to give us teachers who are, first of all, successful as human beings, and who are keen, alert, and dynamic, that their work with the children may demonstrate that education is a spiritual process and not a mechanical process.

We favor a comprehensive, thorogoing program of health education and physical education as absolutely necessary for all boys and girls of elementary- and secondary-school age, both rural and urban, in every state of the Union.

We recommend that the Smith-Hughes law be so amended by Congress as to prevent the possibility of the creation of a dual system of education in any state. All acts appropriating money for the advancement of public education in the states should place the administration in the hands of the commissioners of education and the chief school officers in the various states.

We favor the movement for Americanization conducted and directed by the United States Bureau of Education and urgently recommend the appropriation by Congress of funds in liberal amount in support of this movement.

In order that efficient teachers may be retained in the service and that an adequate supply of trained teachers may be assured for the future, the urgent need of much larger appropriations for the payment of the salaries of teachers should be strongly emphasized and brought to the attention of appropriating bodies.

We desire to express the thanks of this organization to the president, Dr. Thomas E. Finegan, for the excellence of the program he has provided and for the dignified and courteous way in which he has administered this program. Our thanks are due also to the officials and citizens of Atlantic City for their helpful cooperation with, and cordial attitude toward, this Association and its officers.

The following resolution was presented by Charles H. Keyes, of Skidmore College, Saratoga Springs, N.Y.:

Resolved, That we note with extreme satisfaction the high standard of professional recognition fixt by the Board of Education of New York City in the generous treatment which it accorded Superintendent William H. Maxwell, who for many years rendered distinguisht service in this department. In expressing our appreciation of the action of the Board of Education, we at the same time assure Dr. Maxwell of our pleasure that his work has been so appropriately recognized.

Miss Kate D. Blake, of New York City, moved from the floor the adoption of the following:

Resolved, That the Department of Superintendence urge the boards of education of this country to provide school luncheons for children who are undernourisht. The resolution was seconded and adopted.

The cities desiring to invite the Department of Superintendence for its 1919 meeting were represented as follows: Chicago, John D. Shoop; Milwaukee, Milton C. Potter; New York, George Sweeny, manager of the Hotel Comodore; St. Louis, J. W. Withers; and letters of invitation came from Columbus, Ohio, and San Francisco, Calif. The

result of the vote was: Chicago 277, Milwaukee 41, New York 71, St. Louis 58. Mr. Withers, of St. Louis, moved that the decision be made unanimous for Chicago.

EVENING SESSION—THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 28, 1918

The following program was presented:

Address by Dan V. Stephens, congressman from Nebraska, Washington, D.C. Mr. Stephens drew a series of vivid, thrilling pictures from the battle fronts of France, England, and Belgium, narrating scenes thru which he had past as a member of a Congressional committee to study war conditions at the front.

Address, "A Message from France," by John Huston Finley, president of the University of the State of New York, Albany, N.Y.

Mrs. Cora Wilson Stewart, *chairman*, National Illiteracy Committee, Frankfort, Ky., appeared on the program and spoke on Americanization.

The following resolution was offered by John F. Keating, superintendent of schools, Pueblo, Colo., representing superintendents of smaller cities, and was unanimously adopted:

WHEREAS, Our country is now engaged in a world-war upon the outcome of which depends the perpetuity of democratic ideals and the liberty of our nation; and

WHEREAS, We recognize the heavy burdens and responsibilities resting upon him, who for the time being is the concrete embodiment of our country's aims and ideals; be it

Resolved, That the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association here assembled indorse the war aims and the altruistic motives of the United States as exprest by President Woodrow Wilson, and that we in full confidence and faith pledge him our hearty and loyal support in prosecuting this war to a decisive and complete victory, and to a full realization of the lofty democratic ideals which he has so clearly and eloquently presented to the world; and be it further

Resolved, That the president of this department transmit this resolution to President Wilson.

FOURTH DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

MORNING SESSION—FRIDAY, MARCH 1, 1918

The following program was presented under the general topic "National Responsibility for the Education of the Colored People":

a) "The Status of Negro Education"—Kelly Miller, dean of Howard University, Washington, D.C.

b) "The Nation's Responsibility to the South for Negro Education"—W. T. B. Williams, field agent for the Jeanes Fund and the Slater Fund, Hampton Institute, Hampton, Va.

c) "The Nation's Responsibility to Itself for Negro Education and Its Constitutional Power to Render Aid Thereto"—Isaac Fisher, University Editor, Fisk University, Nashville, Tenn.

Discussion—James H. Dillard, president, Jeanes Foundation, Charlottesville, Va.

The following motion, which was carried unanimously, was offered by Mr. Mead of Ohio:

Resolved, That the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association urge the federal government to grant financial aid to negro elementary education based upon some plan which is equitable and which will stimulate greater support for negro education among the state receiving such aid.

The report of the Committee on War Savings, appointed by the president of the Department of Superintendence to cooperate with the government at the beginning of the National War Savings campaign in December, was made by John Huston Finley, *chairman*.

The following motion was made by Professor Hanus, of Harvard University, and was carried:

Resolved, That the action of the Department of Superintendence in appointing a committee to cooperate with the National War Savings Committee be approved, the report accepted, and the work of the Committee continued.

AFTERNOON SESSION—FRIDAY, MARCH 1, 1918

The following program was presented:

"Standardization of Schoolhouse Planning and Construction"—Frank Irving Cooper, architect, Boston, Mass.

"Relation of Home Economics to the War Movement"—Sarah Louise Arnold, dean of Simmons College, Boston, Mass.

"Work and Scope of the Junior Red Cross"—Henry Noble MacCracken, president of Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N.Y.

"Scouting Education for Girls"—Abby Porter Leland, director, National Girl Scouts, New York, N.Y.

"Victory thru Thrift"—George M. LaMonte, member, War Service Executive Committee for New Jersey, Bound Brook, N.J.

Mr. Rost, of the Navy League, spoke for five minutes on the work of that organization.

A. CONFERENCE OF STATE SUPERINTENDENTS

TUESDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 26, 1918

The Conference of State Superintendents met in the English Room, Dennis Hotel, at 2:30 p.m., J. B. Pearson, superintendent of schools, Columbus, Ohio, presiding.

The following program was presented:

"The New Responsibilities and Opportunities Which the War Situation Has Brought to the State Department and the Schools"—Fred L. Keeler, state superintendent of public instruction, Lansing, Mich.

Discussion—A. N. Farmer, superintendent of schools, Evanston, Ill.

"How Shall We Conduct the War Savings Campaign so as to Cause It to Attain Its Maximum Effectiveness?"—M. P. Shawkey, state superintendent of free schools, Charleston, W.Va.

Discussion—R. B. Teitrick, deputy state superintendent of public instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

B. CONFERENCE OF COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS

MONDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 25, 1918

The Conference of County Superintendents met in the English Room, Dennis Hotel, at 2:30 p.m., Lawton B. Evans, superintendent of schools, Augusta, Ga., presiding.

The following program was presented:

"The County Superintendency and Its Problem"—P. C. Fair, principal of city schools, Mansfield, La.

General Discussion.

"Consolidation of Rural Schools"—C. H. Bruce, county superintendent of schools, Macon, Ga.

General Discussion.

"Standardizing the Small Country School"—J. H. Binford, second assistant superintendent of schools, Richmond, Va.

General Discussion.

"The County as a Unit of Organization"—M. S. H. Unger, superintendent of schools, Westminster, Md.

General Discussion.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 28, 1918

The following program was presented:

"The Rural School as a Social Center"—Mrs. Thomas W. Hayes, county superintendent of schools, Roswell, N.M.

Discussion.

"Training Teachers Already in the Service"—J. N. Hillman, secretary, State Board of Education, Richmond, Va.

C. CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH POPULATION OVER 250,000

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 28, 1918

The Conference of Superintendents of Cities with Population over 250,000 met in the Rose Room, Traymore Hotel, at 2:30 p.m., E. C. Hartwell, superintendent of schools, St. Paul, Minn., presiding.

The following program was presented:

"Why the Cost of Public Education Is Constantly Increasing"—J. H. Francis, superintendent of schools, Columbus, Ohio; J. D. Shoop, superintendent of schools, Chicago, Ill.; H. S. Weet, superintendent of schools, Rochester, N.Y.

"Educating the Public to the Financial Needs of the School"—G. D. Strayer, professor of educational administration, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

Informal Discussion.

"Efficient Finance for the City School System"—Frank W. Ballou, assistant superintendent of schools, Boston, Mass.

Discussion—C. E. Chadsey, superintendent of schools, Detroit, Mich.; Albert Shiels, superintendent of schools, Los Angeles, Calif.

D. CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH POPULATION BETWEEN 25,000 AND 250,000

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 28, 1918

The Conference of Superintendents of Cities with Population between 25,000 and 250,000 met on the Million Dollar Pier, at 2:30 p.m., Henry C. Johnson, superintendent of schools, Ogden, Utah, presiding.

The following program was presented:

"Leadership in Education":

a) "Leadership as Found Today in Instruction in Interpreting the Curriculum":

1. "In the Superintendent"—Z. C. Thornburg, superintendent of schools, Des Moines, Iowa.

Discussion—Fred M. Hunter, superintendent of schools, Oakland, Calif.

2. "In Principals and Supervisors"—R. O. Stoops, superintendent of schools, Joliet, Ill.

Discussion—J. H. Beveridge, superintendent of schools, Omaha, Nebr.

b) "How Leadership in Making New Adjustments in Education Must Be Provided"—Ernest Horn, professor of education, Iowa State University, Iowa City, Iowa.

Discussion—J. W. McClinton, superintendent of schools, Pueblo, Colo.

c) "Direct Instruction in Citizenship in the High School"—Milton Bennion, dean of school of education, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah.

Discussion—H. B. Wilson, superintendent of schools, Topeka, Kans.

d) "Thrift in Relation to Public Schools"—Laura A. Smith, primary supervisor, public schools, Atlanta, Ga.

Discussion—Ernest A. Smith, superintendent of schools, Salt Lake City, Utah.

Discussion from the floor—five-minute speeches.

E. CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH POPULATION BETWEEN 15,000 AND 25,000

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 28, 1918

The Conference of Superintendents from Cities with Population between 15,000 and 25,000 met in the High School Auditorium, at 2:30 p.m., L. H. Minkel, superintendent of schools, Fort Dodge, Iowa, presiding.

The following program was presented:

"War Problems":

a) "Economy of Time—A Twelve Months' School, Divided into Four Quarters"—F. E. Palmer, superintendent of grade schools, Mason City, Iowa.

b) "Conservation of Resources—Schools Savings Accounts and Thrift Instruction"—Arvie Eldred, superintendent of schools, Troy, N.Y.

c) "Increast Food Production—Home Gardening"—E. C. Sherman, superintendent of schools, Englewood, N.J.

Discussion—J. H. Beveridge, superintendent of schools, Omaha, Nebr.

d) "A Practical Program of Patriotic Instruction"—Francis G. Blair, state superintendent of public instruction, Springfield, Ill.

Discussion—A. E. Winship, Editor, *Journal of Education*, Boston, Mass.

F. CONFERENCE ON COMPULSORY EDUCATION, SCHOOL CENSUS, AND CHILD WELFARE

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 28, 1918

The Conference on Compulsory Education, School Census, and Child Welfare met in the Park Avenue Hall, Marlborough-Blenheim Hotel, at 2:30 p.m., J. M. Gwinn, superintendent of schools, New Orleans, La., presiding.

The following program was presented:

"Enforcement of the United States Child Labor Law"—Grace Abbott, Child Labor Division, Children's Bureau, Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.

"Child Welfare and Child Labor Laws of Minnesota"—S. A. Challman, State Inspector of Special Classes in Public Schools, St. Paul, Minn.

"Child Welfare and the War"—Philander P. Claxton, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D.C.

"The Need of a Continuing Census of Children of School Age"—John W. Davis, director, Bureau of Attendance, Public Schools, New York, N.Y.

"Causes of Absence from Rural Schools"—Edward N. Clopper, secretary for Northern States, National Child Labor Committee, New York, N.Y.

Discussion.

"Part Time v. the Special Teacher as the Economic Solution of the Speech-Disorder Problem in Public Schools"—Walter B. Swift, medical supervisor of speech classes, Fall River, Mass.

Discussion—Hector L. Belisle, superintendent of schools, Fall River, Mass.; Wilmer Kinnan, assistant superintendent of schools, Lynn, Mass.; John Christopher, superintendent of schools, District 2, Philadelphia, Pa.

G. CONFERENCE ON PHYSICAL TRAINING

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 28, 1918

The Conference on Physical Training met in the High School Gymnasium, at 2:30 p.m., E. H. Arnold, director of New Haven Normal School of Gymnastics, New Haven, Conn., presiding.

The following program was presented:

"Physical Welfare Work with School Children in War Times":

"Outline of Work Planned on National Scope"—Randall D. Warden, director of physical training, Newark, N.J.

"The Vital Necessity of Physical Training for the Country Boy and Girl"—Dudley A. Sargent, director, Hemenway Gymnasium, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

"Minimum Essentials of Exercises"—William Stecher, supervisor of physical training, Philadelphia, Pa.

After a brief talk by President Finegan, in which he exprest his persona appreciation to the people of Atlantic City for their entertainment, to the officers of the department and allied associations, and to those taking part on the program for the success of the meeting, the meeting adjourned.

LIDA LEE TALL, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

ADDRESS OF WELCOME

CALVIN N. KENDALL, STATE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, TRENTON, N.J.

I suppose no one would think for a moment that your comfort would be any greater because of these addresses of welcome. If they were omitted altogether you would not accuse us of inhospitality. You would not think that your presence here was undesirable.

You, of course, are welcome. Be assured and be comfortable. Visitors are always welcome here; the more the better. I have attended these conventions for twenty-five years. You never have been to a place where you were so welcome as here. Where would this city—so unique among American cities—be were it not for such as you? It would not be here at all. I did not mean to say "such as you," because there are none such as you.

We do not care that we were your third choice; we are not sensitive about this. You would come some time anyway, for all roads lead to Atlantic City and all roads lead across New Jersey to our suburbs, New York and Philadelphia. You from the West have done well to emulate the example of George Washington and cross the Delaware, coming, as did he, toward New Jersey. You will find here more comfort than you would have found in the sunny South at this time of the year, and more than in cold New England. The fates have been kind to you to send you to New Jersey; they have been kind to me, and the longer you stay the kinder they will be.

You will find no mosquitoes here—in fact, the alleged presence of mosquitoes in New Jersey is a myth. No one of you has seen a mosquito since he came to New Jersey. The explanation of the legend of the mosquitoes in New Jersey is this: Researches have shown that the mosquito is a very intelligent animal; it has great power of discrimination; this faculty is highly developt. The mosquito is a migratory bird; it has traveled much. It has used its power of discrimination to such good purpose that it has found that of all parts of this country New Jersey is the most favored, the most beautiful, and the most attractive. Such is its admiration of New Jersey that it always registers from New Jersey. In

this way has arisen the myth of the Jersey mosquito. When you get back to your homes, every one of you should teach his pupils that New Jersey, so far as your observation goes, is absolutely free from mosquitoes.

It is good for us to have you here; good for the educational interests of the state. The state feels honored because you are here. It has been honored by no more distinguisht body of men and women than this. This is not the language of compliment or hospitality, but the language of fact. This midwinter meeting has long been recognized as a vital force in the direction of education in the United States. What is said here, what is done here, affects educational policies and practices in every nook and corner of the United States. This convention, with the meetings which have attacht themselves to it, is a great clearing-house for education; so we of New Jersey are cordial in our greetings.

Considering these serious and unprecedented times, which on the one hand make new demands upon the schools and on the other demand that we should make efforts to prevent the curtailment of the processes of education, this is the most important educational gathering yet held in this country. Education in this state feels the strain of these war times—no more than anywhere else, perhaps, but enough to make us serious minded as never before as to the present and the future. We feel therefore that it is well for us that you should spend the week with us. You will reanimate our courage and give us new faith in what we are trying to do. We are indebted to you for coming here. Our press will report your proceedings, and large numbers of Jersey men and women will carry from Atlantic City the gospel that is preacht here. The people in this state believe in education and practice that belief. There was written into the constitution of this state this far-reaching and splendid provision: "The legislature shall provide for the maintenance and support of a thoro and efficient system of free public schools for the instruction of all the children in this state between the ages of five and eighteen years." This provision has been the inspiration of many New Jersey school officials for many years. It in part accounts for whatever excellencies the school system of the state has.

We hope, of course, that your stay here may be pleasant and that you will feel that it is a valuable use of your time to be here. We hope you will not overlook the board walk. Lest you may overlook it I beg you to see it. The board walk is not merely an Atlantic City institution, not merely a state institution, it is a national institution, and in itself is an education, if the proper study of mankind is man, as Pope says, and the study of woman too.

You are in a state where there are nearly 600,000 pupils in the public schools, and 17,000 teachers; whose current expense for education aggregates about $20,000,000 a year; in a state which has an investment of more than $70,000,000 in school buildings and grounds, which appropriates more than $400,000 a year from state funds for industrial and vocational

education; in a state conservative and yet progressive; in a state with nearly 40,000 pupils in its kindergartens and with a high-school enrolment which has practically doubled in six years; in a state where an unusual number of men and women are professional in their practices in education; in a state in which the township administration law was establisht a quarter of a century ago; where the office of county superintendent is absolutely removed from politics; where women helping teachers are employed as assistants to county superintendents, who also are appointed strictly upon merit. These helping teachers with the county superintendents make rural schools better. We have a considerable number of rural schools in New Jersey. You are in a state where universal physical training is establisht by law, this law providing that two and a half hours a week shall be devoted to physical training; in a state in which tenure laws have been establisht for all teachers, who share the benefits in a state-wide pension system with generous provisions for retirement; in a state in which all plans for schoolhouses must be of certain standards; in a state which has establisht 160 schools for defective children. The state distributes to the schools from a state railroad tax and other sources upward of $4,000,000 a year, independent of local taxation.

We hope that you will some time stay long enough to see some of the productive and prosperous farming regions of New Jersey, to see something of the marvelous beauties of the hills of northern New Jersey, to visit some of the numerous historical places in the state, to visit some of the other seaside resorts which stretch all the way from Cape May to Jersey City along the Atlantic coast—a veritable recreation ground of all America.

You are in a state which is hospitable to teachers and superintendents from other states. In common with you we have our problems and difficulties, but for this week, which is a red-letter week for us, we propose to forget largely these difficulties in the inspiration of your presence here. May you have so comfortable a time that you will want to come again and soon.

RESPONSE TO ADDRESSES OF WELCOME

MARY C. C. BRADFORD, PRESIDENT, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, AND STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, DENVER, COLO.

The Service Flag of the National Education Association, whose folds have just fallen into place behind me, stands for the glowing devotion of the teaching force of the United States. Each star means a life nobly lived and nobly offered at the country's call and in the service of freedom and governmental justice. Invisible but nevertheless in reality there, there are hundreds of living stars gleaming in the schools of America, whose rays of daily

duty well performed supplement in loyal devotion the light—symbolized by the stars on this flag—of those who have gone "over there."

The National Education Association gives to those who have welcomed it to Atlantic City a deep appreciation of their words and deeds of hospitality, and pledges in return a session full to the brim of patriotic thinking and doing.

The National Education Association is the clearing-house of intellectual methods. The unification of educational aims is the purpose of this colossal convention. It intends to compare professional aims and intensify education. It convened to study professional needs, to unify professional aims, and to intensify professional inspiration. This convention witnesses the creation of a commission on the reorganization of education in America with particular reference to conditions during the war, and to make preparation to meet conditions after the war. This commission has upon it representatives from universities, normal schools, state departments of education, rural schools, and elementary schools. Our educational methods need changing. The public schools, I believe, have performed their duties better than any other department of public work. The National Education Association is the color guard of the army of civilization. It must become more straight-thinking, hard-working, mighty-loving, in order to make better citizens. It must be a means thru which the government, representing the spirit of America, can make its appeals to the people thru a scientifically and humanly organized school system. The schools exist for the sake of the children. The nation has need of the kind of children that only the best schools can train. The National Education Association stands for the child, for the home, for the nation, because only as these are strong and free and pure can the world hope for a world-civilization after the war.

A democracy is the most expensive form of government yet devised by mind of man in the demands it makes upon the intelligence, devotion, and integrity of all its citizens. A democracy, unlike a machine, must be the expression of develop vital forces if it is to live. For this reason there should be continuation schools, night schools, and opportunity schools where citizens of adult age can go, not only to learn the English language, but to receive instruction in all vocations. The National Education Association promises for July, in Pittsburgh, a purely patriotic convention, and then education in its international relations will be represented. There will be representatives from Great Britain, France, Italy, and America. If a league of nations is to be establisht after the war, and that is one of the things for which we are fighting, we must find a means of permanent unification. This link can be forged thru education better than in any other way, and so the National Education Association is preparing to confer with leaders of educational thought in all countries so that the system of each nation may add its contribution to the common educational treasure of the world. Therefore we hope that the national commissions for reorganiza-

tion may eventuate in an international commission for the study of the child, not only as a citizen of this, our country, but as a citizen of the world. This will bring real brotherhood on earth, and democracy is but another name for brotherhood.

Mr. Chairman, members of the convention, and visiting friends, again I thank you for the welcome extended. In the name of all the states, from the shores of the golden Pacific to the gray Atlantic, from the shadow of the Rockies, where lies my home, from East and West, and North and South, I bring you greeting and offer the service of this, the greatest educational body in the world, in the mighty task of making America ready to accept leadership in the great days that are to come—the greatest task to which the God of Nations has as yet summoned any people—the supreme task of laying the foundations of a new social order thru a trained citizenry.

ADDRESS

CHARLES S. WHITMAN, GOVERNOR OF NEW YORK

It is a distinction, Mr. President, not to be scorned, to be presented to this audience of representative educators as one of their guild. It is true, I did once attempt to teach school. My claim to brotherhood in this great teaching fraternity is slight indeed; but my respect for the profession which more than any other, perhaps, "richly exalts human life" is genuine. I do not employ mere idle words when I declare that it is my abiding conviction that the teachers of America and the schools they represent determine in large measure the destiny of the nation. You may call that statement a truism, if you wish. It will bear repetition. If I mistake not, educational systems which *have* controlled the destinies of nations are on trial before the world today.

But I have no thought of making an educational address. I must not forget that I am far removed from the guild. When the Department of Superintendence met in Kansas City last February this nation was still honestly trying to preserve the hopeless fiction of neutrality in the greatest war the world has ever seen. I thank God, with you, that this meeting of your Association finds the American people lined up—lined up where they belong.

It is not surprising that it took the average man in the street as well as our duly appointed agents in Washington considerable time to clear away the mirage of neutrality. Before the now historic midsummer of 1914, thoughtful men, men familiar with history and trained in the science of government, widely held the view that enduring peace was appearing upon the world's horizon, and that the sun had forever set upon great physical conflicts among nations. The two Hague Conferences, tho they

did not accomplish fully their announst purposes, did much to promote this view. We had very generally and agreeably reasoned ourselves into the belief that war, with all its attendant horrors, was going to be impossible among civilized peoples.

There was ground enough for this painfully mistaken attitude. A thousand agencies were at work thruout the world that made for peace. The twentieth century had dawned upon man in possession of many marvelous new secrets of nature. This freshly acquired knowledge had widely been turned to practical account in adding to the creature comforts of the individual and in bettering human conditions generally. It was hardly to be supposed that men and nations that had done so much to conquer the earth and sea and even the air would not be able in some way to protect themselves against the awful ravages and wanton wastes of war. Men widely cultivated the fiction in this as well as in other countries that economic interests, vast business enterprises, awakened world-conscience, and the dictates of Christian civilization would somehow save the world from future wars.

We had our rude awakening. We did not reckon with the machinations of the Huns. The fundamental causes and issues of the war have been clearly stated many times, and by no one more clearly or forcefully than by the President of the United States. I shall not attempt to elaborate upon them here. I apprehend that you superintendents and principals and teachers will agree with me that no war between civilized nations is without great underlying cause, that the destinies of mankind have been frequently controlled by wars, and that every great conflict among nations determines whether a higher or a lower philosophy of life shall preside over the future of the race. We are reminded from time to time that the names of Marathon and Thermopylae shine like the stars thru all the ages because on those fields there met in physical combat principles of eternal significance. It was not Greek and Persian who fought those battles; it was European liberty and oriental despotism. It was not simply Greek and Persian that met in those long-ago engagements, but the theories of life for which they stood. This war is nothing more than the ancient conflict of Greek and Persian ideals upon a broader field. It is a struggle, as it seems to me, to the death, between two radically different and inevitably hostile philosophies of life and government.

May I briefly point out a few of the evidences of the impassable gulf which lies between our Allies and ourselves on the one hand, and our enemies on the other, all of which are calculated to show that ours is the "will to serve," theirs the "will to power"?

Here are a few of the utterances of General Bernhardi in his book on *Germany and the Next War*. Events have proved him to be the faithful, if not duly appointed, mouthpiece of what Dr. Henry van Dyke calls "the Potsdam gang."

It is a persistent struggle for possession, power, and sovereignty, which primarily governs the relations of one nation to another, and right is respected so far only as it is compatible with advantage [p. 19].

An intellectual and vigorous nation can experience no worse destiny than to be lulled into a Phaeacian existence by the undisputed enjoyment of peace [p. 28].

Our people must learn to see that the maintenance of peace never can or may be the goal of a policy [p. 37].

But the end-all and be-all of a State is power [p. 45].

Those utterances characterize the policy and practice of Prussian militarism even tho they may now be disowned by the power that authorized them.

Now listen to more poisonous utterances by the mouthpiece of modern German philosophy. This quotation I take from page 130 of *The Will to Power* by Friedrich Nietzsche:

Christianity is a degenerative movement consisting of all kinds of decaying and excremental elements; it is not the expression of the downfall of a race, it is, from the root, an agglomeration of all the morbid elements which are mutually attractive and which gravitate to one another. . . . . It is therefore *not* a national religion, *not* determined by race; it appeals to the disinherited everywhere; it consists of a foundation of resentment against all that is successful and dominant. It is opposed to every form of intellectual movement, to all philosophy; it takes up the cudgels for *idiots* and utters a curse upon all intellect, resentment against those who are gifted, learned, intellectually independent: in all these it suspects the elements of success and donimation.

That is the utterance of one of the chief philosophers of the people who in the very words of their mad Kaiser have entered into an alliance, offensive and defensive, with Almighty God. And if that is not enough, listen to this further exposition by Nietzsche:

I regard Christianity as the most fatal and seductive lie that has ever yet existed—as the greatest and most impious lie; I can discern the lost sprouts and branches of its ideal beneath every form of disguise, I decline to enter into any compromise or false position in reference to it—I urge people to declare open war with it. The morality of paltry people as the measure of all things; this is the most repugnant kind of degeneracy that civilization has ever brought into existence [pp. 153–54].

And now, ladies and gentlemen, permit me to present a few quotations from the other side. And the first is this, and familiar to you all:

We [the American people] hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men *are* created equal, that they *are* endowed by their Creator, with certain unalienable rights, that among these *are* life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

And the second is this, from Washington's inaugural speech to both houses of Congress on April, 30, 1789:

I dwell on this prospect with every satisfaction which an ardent love for my country can inspire; since there is no truth more thoroly established than that there exists in the economy and course of nature an indissoluble union between virtues and happiness,

between duty and advantage, between the genuine maxims of an honest and magnanimous policy and the solid rewards of public prosperity and felicity; since we ought to be no less persuaded that the propitious smiles of Heaven can never be expected on a nation that disregards the eternal rules of order and right, which Heaven itself has ordained; and since the preservation of the sacred fire of liberty and the destiny of the republican model of government are justly considered as deeply, perhaps as finally, staked on the experiment intrusted to the hands of the American people.

One more familiar quotation. This from Lincoln's second inaugural address:

The Almighty has his own purposes. "Woe unto the world because of offenses! for it must needs be that offenses come; but woe to that man by whom the offense cometh!" If we shall suppose that American slavery is one of those offenses which in the Providence of God must needs come, but which, having continued thru his appointed time, he now wills to remove, and that he gives to both the North and South this terrible war, as the woe due to those by whom the offense came, shall we discern therein any departure from those divine attributes which the believers in a living God always ascribe to him. Fondly do we hope—fervently do we pray—that this mighty scourge of war may speedily pass away. Yet if God wills that it continue until all the wealth piled up by the bondsman's two hundred and fifty years of unrequited toil shall be sunk, and until every drop of blood drawn with the lash shall be paid with another drawn with the sword, as was said three thousand years ago, so still it must be said, "The judgments of the Lord are true and righteous altogether."

And so, ladies and gentlemen, I could multiply evidence by the hour to show that the ways of the Huns are not our ways. Out of this awful welter of war which has drencht the world in blood for three years and a half there seem to me to emerge for the guidance of the American people certain very clear fundamental principles:

1. There can be no peace by adjudication. There can be no peace except by the sword.

2. We are not at war simply with the royal family of Germany and its camp followers. We are at war with the whole German Empire. It is time to cease trying to distinguish between the leader and the led. The German people are impregnated with the false philosophy of their leaders, and we lose precious time by taking any other view of the grim business ahead of us.

3. One or the other of these conflicting world-forces must ultimately triumph.

4. There can be no peace for the world worth the having until the forces of absolutism are forever subjugated.

5. Peace for us at the price of overwhelming victory is now the only means for the preservation of civilization. Lincoln once said that a house divided against itself could not stand, and that this country could not exist half free and half slave. The very spirit of that great disciple of human freedom which has hovered tenderly over the American people for the last fifty-three years tells us in unmistakable terms today that a world divided

against itself cannot stand and that there can be no enduring peace between the alleged "divine right of kings" and the theory that "governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed."

Just this final word. The hopes, the wishes, the absorbing thoughts of the American people, are now centered with our brave boys "somewhere in France." Unreservedly we are giving ourselves to the cause to which we are committed. I wish I somehow had the power to convince you educators, if you are not already convinst, that you may best serve that cause by resolving with all your energy and with all your well-known devotion to "carry on" where you are. In my judgment you can best serve the nation by keeping the schools and colleges open. Of course, individual members of the guild will wish to take sword in hand. I would not restrain them, but I would urge that the continuity of our school and college work be preserved wherever possible. You, you the leaders in education, must not only train the rising generation how best to fight for peace, but also train the citizenry of the future how best to deserve peace.

Have no thought that you are not nobly serving your country. Whether this war ends tomorrow, or next week, or next month, or next year, or whether the victory for peace and humanity and civilization shall be deferred for five, ten, fifteen, or twenty years, no matter when the final issue shall be declared, the flag in the hands of teachers will be held proudly aloft. Yours is a never-ending mobilization process. Enemies are always, and never more than now, entrencht against you. You must conduct the maneuvers at home in the fight against illiteracy, moral and physical degeneracy, race prejudice, crime, avarice, sordid selfishness, treason, and the poisonous philosophy which would justify the wanton murder of women and defenseless children to secure an uncarned "place in the sun."

It was long ago said by one of the teaching guild that "there can be no sound mind without a sound body." We must set ourselves as we never have before to the building in our schools of strong human units, strong bodies, alert minds, receptive spirits. We must train our youth in practical citizenship, and we must be ready, readier than we have ever been before, to defend that citizenship. We must look out for a higher level of education in this country. Of course you want to be on the firing line. I tell you, the coming years will bring the firing line all around you.

May I tell you the dream of your future in which I venture to indulge? No, I will not call it a dream, because you, you will make it in the coming years an accomplisht fact. It is this: Nowhere in all this land a single sane man, woman, or child of sufficient years unable to speak and read and write the English language; universal recognition of the fact that the *hand* as well as the mind can *think*, and the technical education of hosts of artisans and skilled workmen to give a new dignity and a new place to the thinking hand in our American life; no dirty, unduly ragged, hungry, or physically uncared for child in any school anywhere; universal recognition

that the state has claim upon the citizen, and the systematic military training of our youth so as to give world-highwaymen reason to pause before they again regard a solemn covenant as a mere "scrap of paper"; and finally, the constant objective of the school, high patriotic ideals, clean living, fair dealing, disinterested public service, economic independence, and faith in the Lord of Hosts.

Teachers of America! Carry on! Carry on!

TOPIC: CENTRALIZING TENDENCIES IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

A. LIMITATIONS OF STATE CONTROL IN EDUCATION

PAYSON SMITH, STATE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, BOSTON, MASS.

Educators have not been slow to paraphrase the recent sentence of President Wilson, and to say that popular education is the chief reliance of the nation for making democracy safe for the world. Certainly to those charged with the administration of American education the challenge of this time is to prepare and to present to the American people a program of popular education as broad and comprehensive as are the needs and requirements of the nation, the state in its broadest terms.

Education in a democracy for the upbuilding and perfecting of democracy must be universal and efficient. At present, in America, it is neither universal nor efficient. This is so, not because our people as a whole want it to be so, but because it cannot be otherwise as long as it rests upon a parochial or neighborhood conception of responsibility. To think in terms of larger units and to widen the boundaries of our responsibility, these are definitely the needs of the hour. The state, in the narrow sense, is the responsible creator of educational opportunity. The state representing corporate democracy can and must enforce the means by which it is to be made safe and efficient. That represents the theory clearly laid down by the majority of states in their constitutions. Even within the states the actual practice still harks back to traditional conceptions of responsibility, individual and local, presenting education as a personal privilege and not as a need of the state.

Time was, of course, when a child was held to be entitled to so much—and only so much—of an education as his parents could afford. But in time this was seen to be no adequate conception of a community's right and interest in its own welfare. Men saw that *local* democracy would not be safe on any such basis. Then came the parish and, still later, the district conception of educational responsibility. Under this conception there were —and perhaps even are—neighboring districts, the one offering a longer school year and a better-paid teacher than the other because it is financially better able to do so. We are, however, now accepting a little wider con-

ception of our responsibility for the training of our citizenship. In some states the county, in others the town, is required to look upon all children on the basis of equality. We are seeing America's children as America's children, if they come that much within the range of our vision. In most states the constitutional obligation is in a measure being fulfilled. Thru state aid, modified state support, and a measure of state standardization a certain minimum of educational opportunity is guaranteed. But this is not enough. The coming of the war to America has not been altogether bad. Among other things we have had to take account of stock. America is vastly better acquainted with herself than she was a year ago. It may be no harm to us of the schools to inquire where we stand as to the accomplishments of education.

Not to speak in detail, it is a matter of common knowledge that today in America, the richest country in the world, hundreds of thousands of children sit under untrained and underpaid teachers. This is so because we cling to the neighborhood idea of initiative, support, and control of education.

Take the education of subnormal children. America has not even begun to salvage the possibilities that lie within those of the one talent. Local initiative, save in the largest cities, will not do it. Take the education of the unschooled immigrant; it is hardly toucht. Local initiative and local support are inadequate. This program truthfully implies that the education of the negro is of intimate concern, not alone to a section, but to a nation. Rural education is still calling for recognition of its problems and of the nation's fundamental interest in their right solution.

If anywhere in America there is a group of men and women who ought now to be teaching and preaching and working for a realization in very fact of an American system of education, made in America for America, that group is here, in this room.

In the broadest sense the limitation of state control of education is determined only by the conception of the people of the meaning and worth of democracy, and of their responsibility for its safety, its security, and its success. As a major premise I submit that the time has arrived when the resources and the common purpose of our people should get behind our educational program, when we must accept the principle that we will tax wealth wherever it is for the education of children, wherever they live, for the solution of our educational problems, wherever they are found, for the production of that equality of educational opportunity without which democracy can never realize itself to the full. There are those who at once say, "But that means sending our money away for the benefit of others." It is the echo of the original individualist protesting the education of his neighbor's child at community cost. The protest stands only at the peril of national safety. As for myself, I am unable to think of the children of a community in other terms than as potential assets or liabilities of the state or the nation. If there are those of you of California or New York or

Massachusetts, of Chicago or Philadelphia or Boston, who say you do not propose to see your money thus disposed—then I reply, "Whence comes that money?" Build a wall about your boundaries, check the flow of industry and commerce, and speedily you will discover that you are parts of states and parts of a nation from whose fortunes—good or bad—you are inseparable. Let us understand, once for all, that education does not break down anywhere without causing the people as a whole to share the loss. By the same token, education, universal and efficient, means safety and prosperity common to us all.

Theoretically there are no limitations to state control. But practically there are two limitations. First is the consciousness of responsibility. It is not safe to make use of any given unit of government unless, for the purpose at hand, the people feel themselves in control of that unit. State support of education to the extent that it is regarded as coming from an outside source may be demoralizing. State control, when lookt upon as the officious action of an outside body not answerable to the people, may be mischievous. Both state support and state control, when consciously adopted as the means of making effective what the state as a large community desires, is defensible, is safe, and will be effective. The second limitation is one of administration. Some things the state can do better by using a state agency, others a state can do better by using a local agency.

One word as to what we may term the physical contacts of local and state agencies. There can be no question that the acceptance of the principle of state support and state control has been retarded because of the clashing of these two kinds of machinery. Traditions of local self-government, fear of bureaucracy, distrust of officials who cannot be seen, having led the people to dread the results of state participation in the management of schools. State departments may, one may humbly acknowledge, have their lessons to learn. They need to look upon themselves, and try to get others also to regard them, not as outside agencies coming in to determine the practice and procedure of education as with a supernal wisdom.

A state office of education is an agency created by the people to serve it in helping to interpret and make effective what they, the people, desire for the state as a whole. A state department that gets much beyond that point is dangerous to itself and not helpful to the state. Power, authority, and control, these are dangerous words anywhere. They need careful annotation in any office of education, be it local or state. Many of the antagonisms which arise between local and state offices of education would disappear if both would accept their relationship as co-working agencies, each to supplement the other, created to make effective the ideals and purposes of the people in education.

As to the state in its broader significance, the nation, it is true that even the state neighborhood cannot carry out a program of education adequate

for the nation, then there will arise shortly the question of the limitations of that wider state control. Here there are constitutional limitations which can, of course, be changed, tho with difficulty. There are traditions which are altered even less easily than those of the constitution. But this much the nation can do. It can create an agency, or give power to one, to study national problems of education, not as statistics, but for definite and practical programs. It can place before the nation those problems which the states have not solved, or cannot solve. It can place national resources at the disposal of the state, that they may solve its, that is, the nation's, problems. It can help to formulate, and give expression, as with a common tongue, to those common ideals and standards which must more clearly and definitely stand forth as marking the road education must take if it is to lead to a common ground of thought and action this great people which we now, more than ever before, must see as a nation. Finally, what I want to express is this, that our whole system of popular education is predicated on the theory that it is created for, and is necessary to, making our democratic experiment a success, that wherever education breaks down, whether by reason of poverty, neglect, or indifference, there democracy is in danger; that neither the nation nor the states may disregard the social and industrial causes creating inequality in the distribution of wealth and of educational problems; that as those charged with a responsibility in education it is our privilege to face this situation, not only as it involves the local duty immediately at hand, but as it involves those larger relations in which we are so inextricably bound together.

Within a twelvemonth there have past before our eyes things of which we had not dreamed. We have seen a nation's money poured out in sums untold to save a nation's name and a nation's ideals. We have seen a thousand transportation systems gathered into one unit for the carrying of a nation's goods, we have seen a nation's industries drawing into a common current, uniting a nation's efforts.

We have seen a nation's sons gathered from every corner of the land to go forth under one common flag to justify anew a nation's faith in democracy. Is it too much to suggest that we too, charged in a measure with responsibility for what lies beyond, in the days of reconstruction, that we lay aside the point of view of a place and think in terms of a nation and its needs?

B. THE COUNTY AS A UNIT FOR LOCAL ADMINISTRATION

ALBERT S. COOK, SUPERINTENDENT OF BALTIMORE COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS, TOWSON, MD.

There are two requirements that must be met in order to have a good system of schools—adequate financial support and effective organization and control.

Sufficient money to produce a good school system can be made available in most rural communities only thru large state subsidies and a larger administrative unit than either the school district, or the town and township; since the county is a common political unit in forty-one states, comparable only in its significance for education to the state itself, the *county* is the logical administrative unit. It is now the unit for almost all other forms of public business.

It is a fundamental principle of American education that the wealth of the state must be taxt to educate the children of the state. A unit of the state that does not have sufficient wealth to educate its children must be helpt by the wealthier communities. The purpose of a state school fund is to equalize the burdens of taxation for schools, and to secure, in a measure, equality of educational opportunity for all the children of the state. This fundamental principle of the distribution of state school funds, it seems to me, applies with equal force to the distribution of money available for schools in a county.

A county that is uniformly rich, i.e., that has approximately the same amount of taxable wealth back of each child to be educated, could get along as well without the county unit if we do not take into consideration the necessity for an administrative and supervisory organization. But every state in the Union has its taxable wealth concentrated more or less in spots, and there are few counties not so situated. A county uniformly poor cannot have a good school system with the county unit unless there is a large amount of money available from the state school fund; but there are many school districts and even townships in most counties that do not have sufficient taxable wealth back of each child to be educated to have good schools, for, in the final analysis, a good school costs money, and to maintain a good school money must be available to secure a good teacher, competent supervision, and capable administration.

The weakness of the American system of education, in my judgment, lies in giving too little opportunity for initiative at the top, with too much opportunity for initiative at the bottom almost entirely unexercised, as in many of our weak district- and township-unit school systems. Does any city-school superintendent argue for a minute that a city ward system of education, subdividing the city into from ten to one hundred administrative units with only a nominal administrative head for the entire system, would make for educational progress? Such a scheme of education for a city is almost unthinkable—for a county it is the predominant plan.

Any city in this country of 10,000 inhabitants and over is rich enough to pay the cost of a good school system because cities represent the concentrated taxable wealth of the nation. After all these centers of wealth have set up for themselves educationally, there are comparatively few country districts left in the same fortunate condition; one chief reason is

that the country district must compete for ability in the teaching force with its wealthier city neighbor. The county unit makes it possible to eliminate to some degree this competition.

Baltimore County, for example, can, as a whole, afford to pay as high salaries as Baltimore city. Furthermore our salary schedule is arranged so that a teacher in a one-teacher rural school receives during the first six years of service a salary from $120 to $200 higher than a grade teacher in a town or suburban school. If she is transferred to a grade position her salary is automatically reduced by that amount. Needless to say, transfers to suburban schools are less frequently askt for than formerly. Again, the assistant superintendent in charge of rural schools has fewer teachers to supervise and receives the same salary as other assistant superintendents, while all his traveling expenses, including the cost and upkeep of an automobile, are paid by the county, the state sharing one-half of the cost of salary up to $2,000. This plan is mandatory for one rural-school supervisor in every county in Maryland having one hundred teachers or more, and is optional in counties having less than one hundred teachers. Is not this merely applying the fundamental principle of attempting to furnish equality of educational opportunity to all the children of the county, just as a city does for all of its children?

Opportunity for professional leadership plus a commensurate salary largely determine the *quality* of leadership a school system can hope to obtain. When the schools of a community must depend for the initiation of progressive school policies upon the average rural taxpayer and not upon a well-trained schoolman, there will be mighty little progress. Leadership of the highest order is needed to arouse and inform public opinion in rural communities concerning the needs of the schools and how these needs may be met; only in this way can progress be made.

What is the status of the county superintendency in the United States with respect to professional leadership and a commensurate salary as compared with the city superintendency? There are about three thousand county superintendents in the United States, few of whom have charge of less than fifty teachers, and more than five hundred of whom have some sort of supervisory control of two hundred and fifty teachers or more. There are just about one hundred cities in the United States that have a population of 50,000, or over: that is to say, there are only one hundred city superintendents who have charge of two hundred and fifty teachers or more. If it were possible to centralize authority and educational responsibility in the office of the county board of education and the county superintendent thru wisely administered state school laws, thus placing the county superintendency on a professional plane similar to that of the city superintendency in cities of equal population, what a wonderful field for professional progress there would be in the position of county superintendent in this country! The average county superintendent's salary is 61 per cent of the average city

superintendent's salary; and all cities of a population of 2,500, and over are included in these statistics.

Tenure of office is another important element in professional opportunity. There are no better reasons for electing a county superintendent of schools by direct vote of the people than there are for electing a city superintendent of schools in the same way; and yet, in 1916, twenty-nine state laws required this procedure. In eighteen of the twenty-nine states he is elected for two years, and in two of the eighteen he is made ineligible for more than four years. But these same states that throw such a careful safeguard around the office of county superintendent require very meager qualifications in the candidate, give him very little authority to do anything educationally after he is elected, and pay him very little for doing it. Instead of entering the work as a professional career, he is regarded merely as a political officer and clerk, and the old political principle of rotation in office is applied to the position. It is only natural, therefore, that the country-bred school men with professional aspirations and ability should move to the cities.

To show the flexibility of a county-unit system of education, may I sketch briefly the administrative and supervisory organization in a county having a population of 140,000, rural, suburban, and urban, with 25,000 pupils enrolled and an annual school budget of over $750,000.

There are in this county, in round numbers, eighty one-teacher schools, fifty-five two-teacher schools, and forty-five schools having from three to fifty-nine teachers—in all there are six hundred teachers. The county board of education of six members has entire control of the school affairs of the county. For all purposes of school administration the county is a municipality.

The superintendent of schools is the executive officer of the board of education. As secretary of the board he attends all meetings and may take part in the discussion of school policies and all other administrative problems, but has no vote. As treasurer of the board he is the custodian of all school funds, and all disbursements for school purposes are made over his signature. These duties and many others of a strictly professional character are definitely fixt by the state school law. He nominates, assigns, and transfers teachers, recommends textbooks and materials of instruction, and takes the initiative in preparing the school budget. In this particular county there are three assistant superintendents, each in charge of a definite part of supervision, and there are also three assistant supervisors; these officers, together with four stenographic and clerical assistants—eleven in all—have entire charge of the administrative and supervisory activities of the county under the control of the county board of education. All the principals of schools are teaching principals, except in five or six of the large schools, where the principal is a part-time teaching principal; all are responsible for the administration of their buildings. But the very impor-

tant work involved in the details of classroom supervision is in the hands of a highly specialized staff of six assistants. The teachers are divided into fifteen supervisory groups, numbering fifty teachers each, or less, on the basis of the type of school or the grade or grades taught, as, e.g., one-teacher rural group; two-teacher rural school, principals; two-teacher rural school, assistants; first-grade group in suburban schools, and so on; particular care is taken to group the teachers so that each supervisor has a special field to cover, either in number of grades or in type of school. Proper coordination in supervisory work is secured by meetings of supervisors with the superintendent, by consultation with principals and with one another, and by a supervisor who has specialized in some particular field assisting in meetings with groups whose members he does not supervise. Also a teacher who has done an unusually good piece of constructive work of interest to other groups presents her results to them in person, or thru a signed mimeographt report; the entire time of one competent stenographic assistant is given to the supervisors for this and other similar work. The fundamental conception of supervision is to bring to each member of the group the collective strength of all its members, and to each group, thru the supervisors, or thru individual members of the group, the collective strength of all the groups so far as this may apply to their work. In other words, cooperation for improving the quality of instruction and for professional growth, both by giving and by receiving on the part of teachers and supervisors, is our aim.

Two or three important achievements may be mentioned: First, a strongly professionalized group of men and women are working intelligently for a unified and common purpose. Secondly, the teachers in our suburban schools and their supervisors, have now an elementary course of study under continuous process of revision that competent authorities rank with the best, and our rural teachers and supervisors are engaged on a similar project to meet our rural-school needs. Thirdly, for ten years a county school system has presented a professional opportunity sufficiently interesting to hold together a group of supervisors of unusual ability, notwithstanding tempting offers to many of them from other school systems.

C. THE TOWNSHIP AS A UNIT FOR LOCAL ADMINISTRATION

R. B. TEITRICK, DEPUTY STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, HARRISBURG, PA.

The centralizing tendencies of the present time are so strong that a fixt practice to concentrate power in county, state, and federal authority challenges the best thought of every student of political science. In principle, the township is the oldest and the simplest form of government known. In the early days the people formed themselves into bands known as "regulators" for the purpose of securing their protection and rights. In

England the dwelling-place of the clan became the township, and the home of the tribe became the county. Thomas Jefferson said, "Those wards, called townships in New England, are the vital principle of their government and have proved themselves the wisest inventions ever devised by the wit of man for the perfect exercise of self-government and for its preservation."

With the organization of state government following the Declaration of Independence some significant changes in local governments were made, tho the main features of the old systems were adopted in the different states. In the southern states the county was made the unit in civil administration, and it was also made the unit of school administration. In the states of the North and largely in those of the West the township is the civil unit of local administration and for that reason has been made the unit for school organization.

We should have two sources of school authority, the central government —the state and county, with adjustable minimum requirements—and the local government—the township. Both of these should cohere in one system. A great problem in educational administration is the proper balance between central authority and local representation.

The foundation of a good system of schools is good administration. The education and training of children is the object. At present there are three types of school organization: (1) the district system, (2) the county-unit system, and (3) the township system.

The district unit is the smallest division of administration, embracing an area two or three miles square, in which a single school is located. Each district has its own board of directors, which selects the teacher, furnishes supplies, fixes the tax rate, determines the length of its school term, and decides what improvements shall be made. As a unit of administration it is expensive, inefficient, and unprogressive. It is condemned by the entire educational force of the country.

The county unit has not held its place in local administration partly because it is too large for a primary assembly and too small for a representative legislature. A central government alone tends to become a mere shell of officialdom. There are no officials who can do more or do less without being sent to prison than a county board of education.

The constitution of Illinois provided that the legislature should enact a law for the organization of townships under which any county having the county unit might act when a majority of its voters should so determine. The two systems being thus brought into immediate contact in the same state with free choice between them left to the people, the township-unit system has almost completely supplanted the county-unit system.

Pennsylvania tried the county-unit plan in 1834 and changed to the township-unit plan in 1836. A sound and healthful beginning was made

when the township became the unit of administration. We have state control, so far as minimum length of term, minimum salary of teachers and superintendents, building requirements, and qualifications of teachers and superintendents are concerned. We have the county unit in teachers' institutes and in some grades of teachers' certificates.

The limitations of state control have been presented and the essential features of the county unit defended. It must not be forgotten that both the county and the township are under absolute control of the state legislature, which may regulate the minutest detail of local government.

Township officials are kept accountable to the people, but they have large privileges. They cannot plead that they have failed from lack of power, for they have almost unlimited authority joined with complete responsibility. Public sentiment in favor of improved schools and pride in schools develop a good social consciousness, which is a fundamental element in efficient school administration. Then too a large part of the people of a state live in the country, and interest in local government becomes a vital part of their existence.

The township as the local unit of administration means that all the schools of the township are under the control and management of the school board chosen by the electors of the township. In Pennsylvania most boards consist of five members chosen for a term of six years. It is regarded as a high honor to be chosen school director, and the majority of the members of any school board represent a type of the most public-spirited, thoughtful citizens of the township which they serve. Can school administration be handled better than by your best citizens? A township system of schools can have anything that is found in a good city system of schools, and in Pennsylvania, Illinois, Massachusetts, and many other states there are some of these townships. Out of sixty-seven counties in Pennsylvania, we have sixteen counties in which there are completely consolidated townships, and thirty-two counties that have partially consolidated townships.

The township school boards levy the tax, locate and build the schoolhouses, employ the teachers, and fix the wages above the minimum, elect the superintendents, adopt the textbooks, purchase the supplies and apparatus, fix the length of the term (above the required minimum), consolidate schools, establish high schools, adopt courses of study, enforce the compulsory-attendance law, and encourage pupils and teachers by personal interest and support.

While the financial necessities of a township are met in part by state appropriations, the township does not depend upon the state alone for its resources. The school board has authority to levy and assess a maximum school tax. This strikes at the very root of the matter. A sane mother will not maim her own child nor a sane school board cripple the youth of its township. Can you withdraw authority and responsibility and still retain interest? Lack of interest means a low tax rate and inadequate

support for the schools. The township unit confers the powers of educational control upon the people who are directly affected. Taxation and representation should go hand in hand.

The fine schemes which provide that the other fellow shall pay the tax have never workt. Dr. Claxton, United States Commissioner of Education, in summarizing a survey in some southern states where the county is the unit of administration, says that in many counties the cost of the courthouse and jail is greater than the total cost of all the schoolhouses in the entire county, and the average annual salary of the teacher is less than the cost of feeding a prisoner in jail.

In the county-unit system the centers of population will always control the administration, and while here and there the county may be so united industrially and socially and covered by a good system of transportation that good results may be obtained, the township as the unit of administration offers many more desirable features.

George H. Martin, for many years secretary of the State Board of Education of Massachusetts, said: "The township is in the judgment of the people of this state the only system under which public schools of a satisfactory character can be maintained."

The Superintendent of Public Instruction of Michigan says: "The township system stands for economy, economy in the time of children, in the administration of the schools, and the expenses connected therewith."

The Superintendent of Public Instruction of West Virginia says: "This state has had a township system of administration of schools for many years. It has proved so satisfactory that there is little disposition to change it."

Among the recognized fundamental merits of the township system as the unit of local administration are the following:

1. It is conducive to greater local interest and initiative in educational matters.
2. It is more just from the standpoint of taxation.
3. It is more favorable to the adaptation of education to local needs.
4. The people are brought close together in a community of interests and take personal interest in the activities of the schools.
5. It is the best medium for the expression of the instinct and desire for local self-government.

The township unit of administration gives rural people a great opportunity to cultivate leadership and to work out the ideals of a republic in the most powerful, most important, and most useful institution within their reach—their public schools.

The profit derived from a good system of schools cannot be assest by arithmetic or proved by geometry, but we are realizing today more than at any time in the past that the capital of a country consists in the brains and the bodies of the people, especially of the youth of the nation.

What we plant in the schools today we reap in the nation tomorrow. Bismarck said, "What you want to put into the state you must first put into the schools." He matcht his words with action and made the schoolrooms the first forts, the teachers the first lieutenants, and the textbooks the ammunition. For forty years the Germans have been teaching that might makes right in every lesson in reading, in every lesson in geography, in every lesson in history, and in every lesson in mathematics, until they are blind to everything but the god of might.

Germany has impress this lesson—that children must be saturated with the meaning of ideals. I indulge the hope that thru our schools America may lead in world-ideals—ideals of liberty, of justice, and of righteousness. The world must be made safe for democracy, but its peace must be planted upon the tested foundation of political equality.

D. HOW A STATE DEPARTMENT MAY STIMULATE LOCAL INITIATIVE AND INCREASE EFFICIENCY

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That education is a state function has been recognized in our state constitutions and in legislative enactments. Authority with respect to the certification of teachers, the choice of textbooks, the determination of building standards, and the like has in many states been definitely located in the state department of education. But even in the most highly centralized administration of education much of the control has been vested in local boards of education, and administrative procedure has been largely determined by local administrative officers. There has been a markt tendency in recent years to create or to develop a more efficient state department of education and a more significant control of schools thru this office.

The present-day conception of a state department makes it responsible for stimulating local administrative officers and for increasing the efficiency of local school systems. It is the purpose of this paper to inquire concerning the methods of work most commonly employed by state departments, and to suggest the way in which their practice may most significantly stimulate local initiative and increase efficiency.

From the very beginning of the organization of state departments of education they have required statistical reports from local school officials. At first these reports were secured in order that funds might be distributed or apportionments made in accordance with laws which provided for such distribution or apportionment upon the basis of the statistics collected. There are many states even yet in which the collection of statistics seems to be undertaken primarily from the point of view of finding out how many pupils there are, how many teachers are employed, or how much money is

spent. It is possible to assemble in annual reports statistics which have very little meaning, either for the state office or for the local administrative unit from which they are collected.

A more modern conception of the function of the state office looks upon the preparation and reporting of statistics to the central office as of importance in the study of local administrative problems. In at least three states during the past three years fairly adequate methods of reporting fiscal statistics have been instituted. Along with this improvement in the method of reporting there has gone the necessity for keeping much more adequate accounts than were formerly recorded. This is a clear case of the influence of the state office, thru its right to demand an adequate report, stimulating the local community to a significant study of its own problems.

In like manner, in some of the states significant reports with respect to the attendance, classification, and progress of children are being required. This type of report, which requires an assembling of data from the local school system involving a study of over-ageness, failures, promotion rates, elimination, and the like, requires that the local administrative officer at least be acquainted with facts which might otherwise have escaped him. It is conceivable that in still other fields the force of a state-required report may operate to stimulate careful inquiry thru the assembling of precise information by the local educational authority.

It has been customary in most states to provide some sort of an outline of work to be undertaken in the elementary schools. These courses of study have varied in their significance. In one state we find merely an outline of topics to be treated, or books to be taught. In contrast with this form of control there are in certain states manuals prepared which form a most adequate basis for an improvement in the teaching which is done, especially by the less well-trained teachers. In one state, in particular, the state office, by organizing committees of the most capable teachers and supervisory officers, has issued a series of manuals for each of the more important subjects. They have in this state covered not only the subjects commonly taught in the elementary schools, but have provided most helpful courses of study for the usual high-school subjects. In these monographs there is presented, not only the outline of work to be accomplisht, but definite plans for the development of the subject, a discussion of the purposes or aims to be accomplisht, and suggestions concerning the detail of method to be employed, as well as references which will prove helpful to the less able teachers. There is in this case an appreciation of the need for assistance by the local authority in placing before its teachers a summary of the most successful experience available in the state—an attempt, in other words, to capitalize the work of the more successful teachers and make their practice universally available.

State departments have commonly issued an annual or biennial report. In these documents there have been brought together the statistics of

education, together with descriptive material relating to the various state educational institutions and to the progress or development of the public-school system. In recent years a number of the state departments have issued bulletins at more or less regular intervals. These documents have varied from a single large sheet issued weekly, to a bulletin of from twelve to thirty-two pages issued monthly. In these occasional reports or bulletins have appeared suggestions as to the type of successful work already under way, programs for experiments or new enterprises to be undertaken, together with educational news and reports of varying importance.

Very recently in some of the states special reports or bulletins having to do with war work have been issued. Indeed, in at least three cases the war book issued by the state department has contained literary, historical, and other materials of first-rate importance to every local school system. In many cases the mimeograph or multigraph has been used to send out letters or instructions which have kept the state department in touch with the local school systems. In this manner the state office has been able, not only to stimulate the local authority to undertake work which might otherwise have been neglected, but also to provide for a greatly increast efficiency in the local administration of schools.

The obligation of the state office for the instruction of local administrative officers has in recent years come to be recognized. In the earlier of these undertakings meetings in which the general problems of administration were discust were the rule. Often the group was miscellaneous in its composition, and the discussions of a most general sort. In recent years, in the more progressive states, conferences of groups with common experience and dealing with their common problems of administration have been organized. A conference on the measurement of the achievements of children has been held in one state both for a group of normal-school teachers and for a group of city superintendents. In another state a city superintendents' conference has been held for some years for a period of three or four days, and the most significant problems under discussion among the leaders in educational administration have been discust by speakers from without the state as well as by the most successful men in the local administrative offices. In several states meetings of county superintendents, with a discussion of the highly specialized problems of rural education, have been held. The obligation of the state department to bring to the local administrative officers the results of modern scientific study and of the most successful administrative practices is clearly recognized.

In some of our states the function of the state office in the inspection of schools has been most adequately developt. In those states in which the central authority is responsible for determining the standing of local high schools, the work of inspection, involving as it does the distribution of funds in support of these schools, has assumed a position of great importance. Even where inspection has been undertaken from the standpoint of

determining the validity of the claim of the local authority for state support, many of the more capable inspectors have conceived their work as constructive in character, rather than merely inspectorial. Supervision has often been developt under the name of inspection.

We may confidently look forward to the further development of the work of the state office along supervisory lines. In one state a whole county was carefully surveyed by the state office in cooperation with a university department of education to the end that the local school system might be improved. The same state department has undertaken thorogoing surveys in several of its cities. It seems probable that state officers will in increasing number develop a type of supervisory activity which will be of first-rate importance to all communities unable to employ an adequate administrative staff, and in many cases to supply special service, even in those communities whose schools are most adequately staft.

There are special problems of administration and supervision which may be more adequately dealt with by a highly specialized member of the state-department staff than by any local officer having a general responsibility. The development of a school-building program, the reorganization of local school records, and a study of the financing of education in the local community might, it seems to the writer, on occasion be undertaken by specialists from the state office, with the expectation of enlightening the local community and stimulating local initiative to a degree that would not easily be possible by local officers.

One of the most significant and outstanding features of the development of our school systems is the tendency to centralize administration. Our state departments are growing more and more important in the development of our public-school system. This development in education will be unfortunate if conceived in a narrow spirit of exercising authority and of securing control to the end that a dead level of uniformity may be maintained. If, on the other hand, the state officers seek to capitalize the success of their most adequately administered local school systems, and if they seek, thru the supervision which they exercise, to stimulate the local administrative authorities, much will be accomplisht for the improvement of our schools. The evidence which the writer has been able to assemble seems to him to establish the fact that our state departments are conscious of the obligation to stimulate local initiative as a means for increasing efficiency.

DISCUSSION

C. P. Cary, state superintendent of schools, Madison, Wis.—The general topic this morning is "Centralizing Tendencies in Educational Administration." The speakers have discust ably and well the township, the county, and the state as units. Nothing has been said, however, about the nation as the unit. It would seem that the logic of the argument for larger and larger units and greater and greater centralization would point to the nation as the final unit. So far as finances are concerned, some school districts

in the county are poor, some rich; some counties in the state are poor, some rich; some states are poor, some rich. Why not tax the nation as a whole for school purposes? Again, some communities are educationally alive and progressive, while some are indifferent and non-progressive. The same may be said of some states as compared with others. Then why not have power in Washington to compel all states to come up to the standard of the best, and to give them, if need be, the money to do it? Why not have a powerful educational organization at the capital of the nation, with a minister of education, who could say, as the French minister of education might say: At this particular moment, thruout the whole area governed by eastern time, every child is having a lesson in civics, while in the central division every child is having a lesson in geography, and every child in the western division is having a lesson in manual training or domestic science? Why not have someone to organize courses and see to it that they are adopted and carried out? Yes, police the states to see that the educational laws are obeyed. Is this not in the interest of efficiency?

Is it not a prerogative of government to say what its citizens shall be taught in their youth, and to see to it that they are thus taught? Why not have the general government say what the teachers shall be taught, how they shall be taught, and who shall teach them? Is there any flaw in the logic? Are we not swept on, whether we will or no, to the conclusion that the framers of the Constitution made a blunder in not, in the very beginning, kaiserizing the schools of the nation? See what a happy-go-lucky educational procedure we have been following all these years as a consequence. We who have been here all this week have heard addresses that go, in their logic at least, straight to this mark and are keyed to this tune. Do I hear someone say, "This nation will never kaiserize its education; it's all nonsense to talk about it"? I am not so sure as to that. There is danger here, I fully believe, and there is also danger in the political possibilities, not to say actualities, in some of the national laws that have already been enacted by Congress. I have great faith, however, in the ultimate common sense and democratic instincts and feelings of our citizens, notwithstanding the fact that some of us are today giddy or dizzy over the nationalizing idea, and unless we stop to consider very thoughtfully what can be properly nationalized and standardized, and possibly even crystallized, we shall have some day to retrace painfully our path—that is to say, if America is really to remain a democracy. If we are to have democracy, democracy must not be eliminated from the schools. Autocracy, if it were eliminated from the schools of Germany, would die, and democracy if eliminated from our schools and our school system would die, for death would then be at its root.

Nationalizing education means for us red tape, politics, compulsion, loss of public interest; it means a handed-down-from-above type of education. The adult citizens would then be called upon to acquiesce, to obey the law, to take what is given them. Democracy is a moving affair, a going concern, a growing concern, a matter of personal interest and intelligence on the part of the citizen. Democracy in itself is a means and an opportunity for education. We are today in all progressive states trying almost as strenuously to educate our adults as to educate our children, but if we were to enter upon a system that is handed down from those who are remote—if the thinking is to be done for the people by their officers—then it will not matter much whether our people are educated or not, except in such ways as may make them efficient producers, and loyal supporters of the government. *I am of the opinion that our boasted democracy will have to fight for its very life after this war is over.* The world has had a tremendous lesson in the efficiency possible in an autocracy. Many of our citizens and some of our educators before we entered the war were saying, "Give us some of this autocratic efficiency." They would be saying it now if it were not taboo for the moment. There were even members of this body, arguing, I am told, for the elimination of the schoolmaster from the control of certain kinds of education. It was asserted that the commercial interests could better guide in such matters. We shall have a revival of it when the war is over. The man who is

interested merely in the welfare of boys and girls will be lookt upon as a narrow visionary incapable of thinking in national terms. It will be held that each child must be made to fit and fill his niche in the great machine called "The Great State." All this will happen, I am prepared to assert, *unless the school men themselves prevent it.*

I, for one, believe that the efficiency of Germany is not worth what it costs; let America not follow in her footsteps, at least not in the spiritual aspects of our educational affairs. This is not to be construed to mean that the national government may not require the states to have certain minimum standards of a fundamental sort. Let us preserve democracy by keeping the schools close to the people and at the same time educating our people in all that pertains to the high spiritual ideals that we love and strive to live. There are essentially three ways in which people may be nfluenst to act in educational matters: they may be forst to do so, first, by stringent laws with certain penalties for failure; secondly, by dangling the dollar before their noses and appealing to their cupidity; that motive is very strong and I have heard it used effectively here this week. The third way is to enlighten the people—convince them of the needs of their children, and of their duty to society. This last-mentioned way is the way of democracy, the safe road, tho it may be longer than the autocratic way or the appeal to ignorance and cupidity. Let us spend millions, if need be, to educate our adults, let us aid by state or national money those who cannot help themselves, but only so far or so long as it may be necessary, and let us not be in a hurry to set up a little tin educational god or king log to rule over us from Washington.

J. Y. Joyner, state superintendent of public instruction, Raleigh, N.C.—Centralizing tendencies in educational administration are the logical evolution of an expanding civilization and an enlarged conception of democratic obligation.

The district or community unit of taxation and administration for education recognizes education as an obligation only of the community to the community's children, and limits educational opportunity to the ability and willingness of each community to provide it. The township unit recognizes education as an obligation only of the township to the township's children, and limits educational opportunity to the ability and willingness of each township to provide it. The county unit recognizes education as an obligation only of the county to the county's children, and limits educational opportunity to the ability and willingness of each county to provide it. The state unit recognizes education as an obligation of the state to the state's children, and limits educational opportunity to the ability and willingness of each state to provide it. The national unit recognizes education as an obligation of the nation to the nation's children, and limits educational opportunity only to the ability and willingness of the nation to provide it.

It follows, therefore, that as the conception of democratic obligation broadens from community to nation the units of taxation and administration for education must be correspondingly enlarged. It follows also that if there is to be equalization of educational opportunity in county, state, and nation according to the educational needs of each community there must be recognition of county, state, and nation as units of taxation, distribution, and administration.

Equality of opportunity is a fundamental principle of democracy. Equality of opportunity is an impossibility without equality of educational opportunity. On account of inequality of distribution of wealth, population, and intelligence, equality of educational opportunity is an impossibility without these larger taxing and administrative units making it possible to raise and apportion school funds and administer school systems according to the educational needs of each community rather than according to its ability and willingness to provide them.

Mutuality of obligation growing out of the recognition of common brotherhood is the bond of democracy. The chain of democracy is no stronger than its weakest link. The democratic nation is no stronger than its weakest state. The democratic state is no stronger than its weakest county. The democratic county is no stronger than its weakest neighborhood or school district.

Democracy can perform its task only thru cooperation. The task of giving equality of educational opportunity to all the children of all the people is too big to be adequately performed by any part of the people. Therefore the proper education of all the children of all the people is an obligation of the nation, of the state, of the county, and of the community, and is a task that can be successfully performed only thru the cooperation of all in recognition of the obligation of each to all and of all to each.

The centralized authority must be exercised for equalization, not for domination; for supplement, not for substitution; for stimulation, not for suppression of local county and state effort—pride and self-respect—exercised as a democratic obligation and not as a pauperizing charity. It can be and will be so exercised.

Edith K. O. Clark, state superintendent of public instruction, Cheyenne, Wyo.—I am somewhat at a loss to understand the exact part I am to play in this discussion. When Dr. Finegan askt me to accept a place on the program he said that he was requesting every speaker upon this morning's subject to send me a copy of his paper or an outline of its principal points at least two weeks before the date of the meeting. Not one was received by me, so I supposed that they were all going to make extemporaneous addresses and I would have to pick up my points as they happened to fall. The prospect was a bit dismaying, because I have had very little experience in appearing before audiences, but I thought I would have to take my chance with the others. But behold, every man on the program, including the two preceding me in the discussion, had a carefully prepared paper, except Dr. Strayer, and he had forty-eight of them!

The general subject under discussion is one which should interest us all, and I think that it does. People are beginning to realize that it is time to break away from the old systems of school administration if public education is really to meet the needs of the day. Mr. Cook has presented the plan of operation of the county unit very clearly and forcefully. There is no doubt of its effectiveness and practicability in many localities. The same is true of the report Mr. Teitrick has given of the township as a unit for school administration. Both men believe in their systems, and rightly so. As we listened to each, we were converted absolutely to his idea. But I know of places where it is impossible as yet to adopt either one of these solutions to the rural-school problems of today—places in the wide, sparsely settled West where counties embrace areas larger than some of your eastern states, and where whole townships have no other inhabitants than a few coyotes and prairie dogs. We won't match their intelligence with that of some rural district school boards.

You see we must consider facts as they are, in endorsing for adoption any plan of reorganization. One thing we can say, that the old district system is wrong. School standards should be fixt and maintained by higher authority than the local district board. If the public school is an institution of the state, the opportunities which it offers should be uniform thruout the state. So in communities where the county is too large and the township is too small, supervisory districts under efficient directors should be establisht, including a reasonable amount of territory and a reasonable number of schools, thereby assuring the maintenance of universally high standards thruout the neglected rural districts.

I am glad that Dr. Strayer reported that all of the forty-eight state departments of education had replied to his inquiries. That is a fine tribute to the business-like cooperation of school administrators.

Some of the facts brought out concerning the ways in which state departments stimulate local initiative and increase efficiency deserve special commendation and emulation. I wish he had named the states in which these things are practist.

On the whole, the thoughts are typical of the tone of this whole convention—that we must think in terms of the new needs and responsibilities brought about by the war, that school people must reach the parents thru the children and impress upon them, one and all, that everyone here at home has a duty which he dare not shirk. As someone put it, "Everyone who cannot *go* across, must *come* across."

TOPIC: OPPORTUNITY AND LEADERSHIP IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

A. THE PLACE OF THE STATE SUPPORTED AND MANAGED INSTITUTION

BENJAMIN IDE WHEELER, PRESIDENT, UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, BERKELEY, CALIF.

The state university as an educational product is a crude triple blend. It had its beginning in the American small college. From that it drew its ideas of schedules, procedures, and courses. There was nothing else to look to. Probably that was fortunate. The small college was a unique American creation, and the acceptance of its type spared us a sudden and wholesale adoption of a foreign system.

The second element was involved in the features we were supposed to have borrowed from the state universities of Europe—such things as the much lecturing whereof betimes the flesh grew weary, and the much liberty in attendance which too often degenerated into the much liberty in absence.

The third element is most important of all. It involves the progressive adjustments made to satisfy the needs and desires of the people in the several states. This was a people who did not hesitate to say what they wanted—who, having paid for the support of the university, wanted their money's worth, and who, being relatively free from slavish regard to the academic tradition, would not easily be brought to believe that anything which the plain use and need of everyday humanity had once proved sacred was ever to be branded common or unclean.

But whatever the ingredients assembled to produce the type and whatever their proportions, certain it is that the American state university both as to form and spirit, is a type distinct and separate from that of the French, the German, or the British. It is furthermore the last three decades which have established our separateness by cutting free from continued imitation of the German type and by declaring an educational independence based upon a fundamental difference in social and political need. The European university banishes the technical schools from its midst, but the American definitely encourages the vocational type of instruction for mature students approaching the realization of life-work, and it welcomes the students of engineering, business, medicine, agriculture, and the like as stirring the academic blood to real life in the face of real problems rather than making the university a mere place of learned rendezvous.

As regards the older type of privately endowed universities, it cannot be denied that they also, as well as the state universities, are thoroly American. These institutions have had indeed their roots longer in American soil. They have shared longer the vicissitudes of American life and history; they have longer memories. Their studies, their policy, and their methods are less likely to correspond to the temporary enthusiasms of this

or that recent period of the nation's experience. They are less disturbed by the dust whirls of fad. It is presumable that the two types, though not approximating, can never drift widely apart; they are naturally held together by the fact of their common service to American society; they are both engaged in educating young Americans. Should it, however, at any time grow to be the usage for the sons of the wealthy to attend prevailingly the privately endowed universities and to receive their preparation therefor prevailingly in expensive private schools, then the gap would widen rapidly and the privately endowed universities would render a great and very sad contribution to the development of a caste line within American society.

The conception of a state university was at no time entirely foreign to the thought of our people. From the very beginning Harvard, Yale, Princeton, King's (Columbia), William and Mary, were respectively in some sense the Colonial colleges of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Jersey, New York, and Virginia. Harvard's board of overseers was made up of *ex-officio* officials and magistrates and "teaching elders" of the colony. Princeton was called the college of New Jersey, Pennsylvania the University of Pennsylvania. All of them were given their existence by act of their Colonial legislatures. Harvard and Yale received constant support from their legislatures. Enough at any rate of the idea of state relationship was carried over from Colonial days so that no shock of novelty was involved in 1819 when a University of Virginia proclaimed its far-reaching plan, and the states fashioned out of the Northwest Territory—Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, Wisconsin, Illinois—early provided themselves each with a state university as calmly as if the very notion of a state required it.

The old colleges of the Atlantic coast had, however, no real mind to the state university idea. They were ready enough to accept an appropriation or a building or to welcome the governor on Commencement Day, but being keenly suspicious of any control or exercise of the visitatorial function on the part of the state, they preferred to relinquish their birthright as state institutions rather than to tolerate the profane foot of popular inspection within their sacred precincts. Meanwhile, in the early nineteenth century the collegiate distrust of the public was coming to be reciprocated. The colleges grew little if at all; in their inner life they were stagnant. But there was a new democracy stirring in the air, and there were many who thought—and said it too—that an institution so important to the community as a university could not well be maintained as a close corporation, a public institution under private control. The crisis came when in 1819 the decision of the fateful Dartmouth case was proclaimed by the voice of Chief Justice Marshall. It was a matter of the legislature's assuming to amend the college charter. The Supreme Court of the United States decided that that charter was a contract within the meaning of the clause of the Constitution of the United States which declares that no state shall

make any law impairing the obligation of contracts—furthermore that under its charter Dartmouth College was a private and not a public corporation. This decision created a sharp frontier in the history of American higher education. As Dr. Elmer E. Brown, in his *Origin of American State Universities*, aptly says: "It put an end to efforts directed towards governmental regulation of education close corporations; but in so doing it turned the full force of this movement into that other possible course of governmental agency, namely, the establishment and maintenance of colleges and universities under full state control."

This had been indeed from the beginning the real significance and purpose involved in the foundation of the colleges. If, for instance, they seemed in their origins to be shaped mainly toward an ecclesiastical purpose, that was readily to be explained from the fact that religion and the church, particularly in the form of the state church, were pre-eminently public interests; Massachusetts maintained a state church until 1811 and Connecticut until 1818. It was only as the eastern colleges and universities availed themselves of such protection against the public as culminated in the Dartmouth decision that they shrank back and assumed the status of private institutions—institutions serving in the main the public and public purposes, but still legally private institutions.

From this time onward one after another the frank and outright state universities came into existence. From the beginning they had existed by the inner promptings of the public will as part and parcel of the public schools that were to be. All three, the elementary, the secondary, and the higher education were recognized together in that fundamental Massachusetts Act of 1647 which appointed its orders under the glowing caption: "That learning may not be buried in the graves of our fathers in church and commonwealth, the Lord assisting our endeavors—it is therefore ordered," etc.

The state university is no longer to be considered as a type of institution suited to pioneer conditions and establisht and supported by the state, as it were, temporarily and in the lack of privately supported institutions. It is rather to be recognized that the privately controlled universities represent the exceptional and the temporary—an indication of this may be found in the strong reaction of the public type from the West upon the East. The state university is no peculair form of institution existing for itself and for its own convenience and aggrandizement. It is simply and outright the public-school system in its extension to the higher learning and research. The act of 1647 making the first provision for a mechanism of schools and teachers to carry out the plan of compulsory education had its face set toward the university and actually named the university by name as the head. This act is the beginning and the charter of our public-school system. That system, therefore, was not brought into the world as a mass of ragged schools nor as a device for sidetracking the children of the poor.

On the contrary, it opens a straight path from the elementary school to the university for such as will, and its fundamental document blesses and consecrates it with that noble breath of prayer, "that learning may not be buried in the grave of our fathers."

B. THE PLACE OF THE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION FOR WOMEN

KATHRYN SISSON MCLEAN, DEAN OF WOMEN, OHIO WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY, DELAWARE, OHIO

It is most commonplace to say that we are living in a day fraught with unusual possibilities and opportunities, and yet this very fact is borne in upon us from so many angles that we cannot but continually voice our joy that it has been vouchsafed to us to live our life during these terrible but history-making days. There is a touch of irony in the truth that war brings greatest suffering to the womanhood of a land, and yet, as if to atone for this unsought sorrow, the reverse of the shield is seen in the fact that it always carries in its wake great opportunities for progress and opens many doors of privilege—social, economic, political, and intellectual. The Civil War proved to be woman's great emancipation, and to the womanhood of America this war is a mighty stimulus to heart, mind, and practical ability. It is woman's opportunity as well as man's heritage. The concentration of thousands of young men in the nation's training camps, the steady silent procession Europeward of the crowded transports and stately ships of war, the suffering of the worn-torn nations of Europe, these have awakened in us a greater love, a greater capacity for sacrifice, a greater intellectual activity, and a wider outreach toward efficient action than we have known since the dark days of the Civil War.

Ye that have faith to look with fearless eyes
Beyond the tragedy of a world at strife,
And know that out of death and night shall rise
The dawn of ampler life,
Rejoice, whatever anguish rend the heart,
That God has given you a priceless dower,
To live in these great times and have your part
In Freedom's crowning hour;
That ye may tell your sons who see the light
High in the Heavens—their heritage to take—
"I saw the powers of Darkness put to flight
I saw the Morning break."

The Civil War brought home to a country hitherto indifferent to the idea of higher education for women the realization that intellectual training must be given its women if they were to be prepared for the many doors then opening to them. Every great movement reflects the character of those who first champion its cause, and to a large degree

these pioneers make or mar its advance. The great success of the educational project for women has been largely due to the nobleness of purpose, broad, far-reaching vision, and sane, sober judgment of the men and women who founded our great colleges for women and advocated their admittance to state universities. All honor to the memory of Mary Lyon, Mathew Vassar, Emma Willard, Alice Freeman Palmer, and others who gave their impress to women's education. They sowed the seed, we are today reaping the increase.

As we look at the subject of education for women in the light of the present, we know instinctively that the *great* opportunity lies in the opening of the many doors to women. This is the first hour in history for the women of the world. This is the woman's age! At last, after centuries of disabilities and discriminations, women are coming into the labor and festival of life on equal terms with men. To meet this challenge of opportunity, to train women to go up and possess the land, is the great heritage of our colleges. When history, now being made, is written, one fact which the historians will dwell upon, if we mistake not, will be this emancipation, this seemingly sudden coming of women into their own. Men are today, not only turning to women for advice along practically every line, but saying, "This is your work, do it." Are women to meet this opportunity haphazardly with loss of effort and a personal loss to themselves of those things which are a woman's greatest possession, or are they to bring to the task trained intellects, calm, tolerant spirits, and a broad outlook upon life with its privileges and opportunities? We always find that every far-reaching event or epoch imposes a great responsibility upon our educational forces. Obviously, if this vision is to be even glimpst, our colleges must stamp upon those who enter her doors a personal character and power which will set into action currents of influence as boundless as life itself.

The call today is for women who are accurate and sincere thinkers. Is it not about time that we strike down that arch-enemy called inaccuracy? Colleges can demand and insist upon an accuracy of preparation in the classroom, and an accuracy of speech and thinking. Intuitions, conclusions quickly reacht and not substantiated, emotions uncontrolled, are not our only birthright! *Sincere* thinking will strike a blow to the theory that a college education for women is measured by ability to make a living. Not long ago we heard a well-known educator give this as the desired aim. What a sordid aspect to give a thing as enobling as work! But rather will not the question be askt and insisted upon, What is my own individual contribution, what can I bring to life which is my own, what is my method of approach and the line of attack where my personality, my ambitions, can be best exprest? These questions answered satisfactorily, it is evident that the many avenues of service needing women's attention in and out of the home will not go unanswered. Community and civic problems will be undertaken willingly, suffrage will be assumed as a matter of high

privilege, and social standards, now woefully undefined, will be given a status.

Another demand which the present open door intensifies is that incentives be moral as well as intellectual. The moral situation of this country is not assuring. There seems to be an increase of irreligion, skepticism, tainted social status, and disorganization quite enough to distract the nation from the achievement of its high purpose. What will avert it? What will establish the faith of the people on solid ground? What will withstand this mass of irresponsibility that is gathering to thwart the high purpose of the Republic? The answer is, the adoption of a constructive, not a destructive, policy. What is the strongest constructive force today? Education. Well and good. Therefore we should improve our education, giving to it a strain of spirituality that will change the habits and uplift the thought of the coming generation. Knowledge, science, mathematics, skill, will not answer. We shall have to do something vital and urgent to enoble the ideals and aspirations of men and women, and the burden—nay, privilege—of this development is placed at the door of our colleges. Are we looking well to our spiritual defenses?

This war, terrible and costly as it is, spells opportunity to our educational institutions for women. As a result of this holocaust a great restlessness is upon our college women. One may say that this restlessness is not felt by the women as by the men. I beg to differ. Our men have, to a great degree, their course mapt out for them. They have either volunteered or are waiting to be called, while our women are facing the disappointment of all inherited and traditional longings and plans. What do they do? Sit down, fold their hands, and cry out aganist an autocracy that makes this condition possible? No! Do they not rather accept the conditions and rise to the occasion by finding an expression of their individuality as efficient contributors to the work of the world? The spirit of high privilege with which our young women are meeting this issue shows their innate worth, intensifies our respect for them, and augers much for the future.

The war has given all students a new attitude toward college life. Their seriousness of purpose we have toucht upon. They are sensing the utter inconsistency of extravagance and easeful living, hence a wave of economy and adopting of mottoes such as "No frills and fripperies." Dances are being given up and simple entertainments, calling for initiative and an expenditure of time and thought, are supplemented.

College Red Cross auxiliaries and chapters with their knitting and surgical-dressing departments have greatly swelled the total output of articles sent across to our armies. Now that the call has come to stop knitting and aid in tilling and harvesting the fruit and grain, college agricultural units will be quite generally organized. This changed and broadened attitude toward work will do much to remove the stigma of smugness and self-sufficiency which has been brought—and perhaps justly—against

college women. It has been bought with a terrible price, but thru this war women have come into their own as citizens pledged and consecrated to democracy of living, democracy of work, and democracy of ideals!

The college war course now being offered our young women augurs much for woman's future training vocationally. That she must of necessity go into many new and untried vocations, taking her place industrially and economically as a wage-earner and contributing agent, no one will deny. The woman of today needs, as never before, the background of a cultural education and, too, she needs to have added to this a preparation and equipment fitting her to do a special piece of work and do it well. In short, our colleges will have to *increase*, not decrease, vocational courses. Colleges offering such courses are well to the front today, and colleges not offering these courses are, because of the war exigency, changing their policy. It is interesting to note that home economics and business courses are being given in schools which formerly have had no work in these lines. The average war courses are business, hygiene, social science in war times, and home economics. A list of typical war courses in and outside the curriculum, taken from the recent reports of the colleges, is: Land line telegraphy, wireless telegraphy, automobile mechanics, nautical astronomy, navigation, elementary nursing, first aid, principles of war relief, draftsmanship, medical laboratory method, map-drawing, home economics, industrial chemistry, farm management, surgical dressings, office routine, and a course for teachers of occupational therapeutics. Women are being trained as dental hygienists, constructive recreation is being strest, and the engineering department in several universities shows enrolment of women. In what lines colleges are yet to go is unknown. History is being made too rapidly even to venture a guess. At any rate, judging from the great stride made in coordinating life in academic walls with life outside and "over there," the colleges will not be behind, but rather in the vanguard of real initiativeness and usefulness.

The way in which our educational institutions for women have built on their foundations and met their opportunities for development and leadership makes us sanguine as to the reconstruction period after the war. Then our educational theories and systems are to be tested as they have never before been tested. College life must now and hereafter be a satisfying portion to our young men and women and must wield an influence greater than ever before, because we shall think in terms of world-democracy and internationalism.

May we not count it as one of life's compensations that we bear the name of "teachers" and have a share, small as it may be, in shaping the destiny of college women, who are the potential mothers and leaders—economically, industrially, and politically—in our day and generation?

C. THE PLACE OF THE EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATION

CLYDE FURST, SECRETARY, CARNEGIE FOUNDATION, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The educational foundation is an agency of democracy which finds for its work in each country means growing out of the national civilization and adapted to the national environment. These foundations are the product of large private fortunes which in other countries have been used generally to perpetuate family pride and power. Their extensive use for philanthropic purposes is characteristically American and democratic. The foundations represent a distinctive effort of our people and our time to deal with problems peculiar to our civilization, in the form of a representative organization completely responsible to public opinion.

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, which was incorporated by Congress in 1906, administers the income of two endowments. The one, of fifteen million dollars, is devoted to the payment of retiring allowances to college professors and of pensions to their widows in the United States, Canada, and Newfoundland. The other, of a million and a quarter dollars, is devoted to the study of educational problems thruout the United States and Canada and to publishing the results of such inquiries.

The efforts on the part of the foundations along the lines of pensioning teachers and studying educational problems from a national rather than a local standpoint have been more than welcomed by the great majority of schools, colleges, universities, and educational organizations. For example, the Foundation has just completed its fourth report to the Committee on Pensions of the National Education Association, having first presented data concerning all existing systems of pensions for teachers, then a study of these systems, then a summary of pension principles, and finally a definite plan for a teachers' pension system which includes all of the features that have proved to be desirable. On the other hand, it has been suggested occasionally that such agencies are not desirable, that they interfere with the free development of the teaching institutions, that their separation from local interests is harmful rather than helpful.

Those who derive their information concerning the studies of the Carnegie Foundation from the newspapers only naturally desire to know more about it. The Foundation, they say, is an endowed agency conducted by a self-perpetuating board of twenty-five trustees, mostly university and college presidents, who intrust their administration largely to executive officers. They conduct their Foundation under a charter which excludes from participation in its pensions institutions that are controlled by religious bodies. Is it not likely that denominational colleges may be tempted into an insincere position in order to secure the benefit of these pensions? Is it not possible that the college professor's expectation of a pension may restrict the freedom and independence of his opinions? Will not an agency

separated from teaching bodies and out of touch with local needs exercise an undue influence upon colleges and universities? In fact, has not the Carnegie Foundation already undertaken a somewhat arbitrary enforcement of college and university standards? Finally, if there is to be an educational agency which scrutinizes institutions and studies conditions thruout the country and publishes reports concerning them, should not this be a governmental agency, not one conducted by a self-perpetuating board of trustees, which is the holder of an endowment from a single individual? These are thoughtful questions which deserve adequate answers.

The articles of incorporation and all the reports of the Foundation show clearly that its endowment can provide pensions for only a small minority of the college teachers of the country, and that by the terms of the gift only such colleges can be askt to share in these pensions as apply no test of a religious character in the choice of their trustees, officers, or teachers. Since most of the colleges of the country are related legally to religious denominations in one way or another, it has been clear from the beginning that they cannot expect to share in the financial benefits of this endowment. A few institutions—seven of the seventy-four associated with the Foundation—have changed from denominational to undenominational charters. Most of these changes were in progress when the Foundation came into existence. The form of the Foundation's charter has prevented at least an equal number of colleges from making such changes, thru fear of being considered insincere. The great body of church colleges, both Protestant and Catholic, and the various denominational bodies have expected nothing in the way of pensions and have shown, on the other hand, the greatest readiness to cooperate with the Foundation in its study of educational problems and in its efforts for the improvement of educational conditions. The Foundation, on its side, has made every effort to show that the denominational restriction in its charter relates, not to religious belief, but simply to a form of college government.

The apprehension that the professor might be influenst in his attitude by his expectation of a pension rests upon two misapprehensions: First, as to the method of administration, the teacher in the associated colleges does not deal with the Foundation; he deals entirely with his college and receives his retiring allowance from the college precisely as he receives his salary. The second misconception concerns the character of the American college or university teacher. Nothing would so arouse, and so justly arouse, his opposition as any effort, however indirect, to control his opinions about education, college administration, or any other subject. The sole opportunity that the foundations have of influencing the judgment of teachers is thru their publications, and these have weight only as they are sound and prove in the end to be wise.

When the foundations accept invitations to undertake educational inquiries they associate with them the men whose experience and knowl-

edge are believed to be of the greatest value in the particular field of study. Usually these are teachers who are granted leave of absence for the purpose by their universities or school systems. The group thus formed, after extensive studies in the field, together with the small permanent staff of the foundations, sit in conference with college and normal-school faculties, trustees, superintendents of education, state and city officials, denominational boards, professional and business men—in short, with all who can aid in the solution of our complex educational problems. Out of this contact, over studies made on the ground, there come, in the course of weeks or months, conclusions which may not be final, but which probably represent the best consensus of opinion that can be reacht at the time. The local participant in such conferences is aided by the judgment of the man who is free from local traditions and local interests. The man from a distance has his conceptions modified and made practical by his intercourse with the man on the ground. In their patient, sympathetic, and intelligent cooperation lies a large possibility of good.

In addition, there is an advantage both for the local institution and for the country at large in the entrance of agencies which, while they seek to be sympathetic and fair, need not be afraid. Some of the conditions in education in our country have been and still are wretched. Such conditions are often suffered in silence because of the thoro organization of alumni, the rivalry between state and endowed colleges, and the fear of offending local interests. Many of the actual facts concerning education will never be made known until they are brought to light by intelligent, sympathetic, but courageous, outside agencies which have the money to make studies, with the necessary time and care, and which do not fear to publish the results.

It would seem scarcely necessary to speak of the educational foundations in connection with political influence, but this question also has been raised. Those who are familiar with political activities must find considerable humor in the suggestion that a legislature or other representative body may be over-influenst by the ideas of a corporation bearing the name of a prominent philanthropist. The studies made by these foundations can achieve their results only by a slow process of public education.

There is some misapprehension concerning the relation of the Carnegie Foundation to college and university standards—not to those ideals of life and conduct that colleges seek to inspire, but to those objective tests that colleges must maintain in order to carry on their work, such, for example, as the standards of admission, examination, and promotion. With the fixing of such standards the Carnegie Foundation has little to do. They are set up and administered by college faculties and by various boards. The Foundation has never attempted to dictate to any college what its standards should be. It has, however, endeavored by bringing such matters into public discussion to urge that these standards be reasonable and be honestly administered, and it has not hesitated to call attention to

the discrepancy that has often existed between the standards announst by a college and those that it has actually used in practice.

There has been some fear lest a central agency dealing with education might interfere with the independent life of other institutions. Such an argument rests upon a failure to distinguish between independence and freedom. Only by placing itself upon an isolated island could an institution like a university have absolute independence; in an American commonwealth its freedom is limited by the rights and the interests of other institutions. As a matter of fact, the college and the university have interfered in very arbitrary fashion with the secondary schools; and it is only within recent years and thru the pressure of public opinion, aided to a considerable extent by the foundations, that they have come to consider seriously their duties toward these schools. In the long run the universities, the colleges, the schools, and the educational foundations will find their true relations, and each will attain the full measure of freedom to which it is entitled. It is in such freedom, not in complete independence, that the problems of a democracy must be wrought out.

There is one other doubt which may remain. The Carnegie Foundation administers at the same time a Pension Fund and a Division of Educational Inquiry. Will it not use the Pension Fund to help out an educational propaganda? Will it not approach the needy college with a pension in one hand and an educational prescription in the other? It is perhaps true that an exceedingly brief influence might be gained by using pensions as a bolster for an educational program. How small a rôle such a program could play, however, will be realized by recalling that there are a thousand colleges and universities, hundreds of normal schools, and fifty state and provincial systems of education in the United States and Canada. The Carnegie Foundation has some educational relation with most of these. It can pay pensions in a very small minority. For the great number of colleges and for all normal schools and state and provincial systems of education no question of granting pensions arises. The Foundation's contribution to the great army of teachers, so far as pensions go, is in the development of the pension idea. Any funds that the foundations may have to distribute are but a drop when compared with the country's annual expenditure for education. There is an even more conclusive reason why the Carnegie Foundation has not coupled its pensions with educational propaganda. It has no educational propaganda; no educational system to propose; no specific to recommend. It hopes merely to help in the illumination of the complicated problems upon the correct solution of which depends our future welfare and happiness.

Finally, it may be askt, if there are to exist agencies viewing education from the standpoint of the whole nation, dealing with education as one thing and not as a chaos of divided and unrelated things, publishing reports which have to do with the universities and colleges and school systems of the

various states—ought not such an agency be governmental? Should not such a function be exercised, if it is to be exercised at all, by the office of the United States Commissioner of Education? The answer is clear. No privately endowed institution can ever take the place of a national bureau of education. Any privately endowed foundation which conceived of its functions in such terms would be doomed to ignominious failure. Everyone knows, however, why a governmental agency cannot at this time report critically on universities and colleges and systems of public education. The support and control of all of our governmental bureaus, including the Bureau of Education, is political. A few years ago that Bureau prepared a report making comparisons between educational institutions of certain classes. The moment the nature of this report became known the local institutions in many states appealed to their congressmen and senators, and they in turn to the President. The report was suppressed. No such bureau can tell fully and frankly the facts about education in the various states in such reports, for example, as the Carnegie Foundation's studies on medical education and agricultural education recently published, or those on engineering education, legal education, and the training of teachers which are about to appear—all of them undertaken at the request and carried on with the cooperation of representative organizations. It is indeed anomalous, in a country where the prestige and the problems of education are unparalleled, that education has no seat in the national cabinet, as it has in England, France, and Italy, but is relegated to a severely restricted minor bureau. Yet this remains the situation in spite of all our efforts to better it.

Entirely apart from this, however, privately endowed foundations, whose trustees represent the whole country, will always be able to perform, as no government agency ever can, an important and indispensable public service. It is the essence of democracy that there should be, not only governmental action, but also private cooperation and initiative. We need, not only a government Bureau of Public Information, but also the Associated Press, not only state-supported, but also endowed, universities, not only the Bureau of Education, but also the National Education Association and the educational foundations.

D. THE VIEW OF THE ENTIRE SITUATION FROM THE OUTSIDE

DON C. SEITZ, EDITOR, "THE WORLD," NEW YORK, N.Y.

Your chairman gave me a very large contract when he assigned me to discuss the problems of the educational field in general. It seems to me tho that education, like business, has become swampt with undue overheads of cost in time and money—time taken away from children and money taken away from the taxpayers.

To educate thoroly a young person under our present system takes fifteen years, including a college term. A period of eleven years for primary and high-school instruction, in view of what is accomplisht, seems out of all proportion to the necessities of the case. I would remedy this by a radical change in our system of instruction. To open the door of knowledge, it is first needful that children should learn to read. I would therefore teach nothing but reading until every child in the class had acquired an ample vocabulary. I would extend the lessons to all forms of interest as rapidly as the vocabulary acquisition permitted. I should be very catholic in my selections, and if I could not arrest a boy's idle mind in any other way I would feed him on dime novels—anything to get a vocabulary. Having acquired the art of reading and an interest in what is read, I should next instruct the pupil in the methods of communicating knowledge, to wit, writing and spelling. A child would study nothing else until proficient. Every pupil would recite and pass in separate review and be dealt with according to his needs. Having thus acquired the means of understanding and of transmitting it, I would then turn to mathematics and teach nothing but addition, multiplication, and division until the pupil was thoroly proficient. He or she would then be equipt to acquire wider knowledge. Then I would give a thoro course in history and geography and call the task done, except for the exceptional. To this I would open the high schools for their ready entrance, if they wished to go—I would push no one in.

I think that one of the reasons why education meets with so much resistance and is treated with so little respect is because it comes to the pupil in the form of a task. It should be advertised as a recreation, as a means of wider enjoyment in the good things of life. Because people are poor or engaged in humble occupations is no reason why they should be shut out from the light of the world. Why should not a mechanic who runs a lathe in a machine-shop be able to enjoy Shakespeare? Why should a servant or a waitress in a restaurant be debarred from the great romances? It is just as sane as that poverty should be akin to dirt and that poor cooking should ruin provisions when bought by the poor. It is a popular delusion somehow that the enjoyments of life are only for the well-to-do, and it seems to me that for this delusion the attitude of the educator is largely responsible. We should simplify instruction, enhance its entertaining qualities, and broaden the mind of the average so that it can enjoy every opportunity that is open to the fortunate, and rest the backs of the taxpayers.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ECONOMY OF TIME IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Your Committee presents its third report of progress in Part I of the *Seventeenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.* Previous reports were presented in the publications of this Society, the same appearing as Part I of the fourteenth and sixteenth yearbooks.

In the three reports attention has been directed mainly to formulating upon the basis of research studies the minimal essentials in the various subjects of the elementary schools. The accompanying table summarizes both the subjects of study which have been discust and the number of pages devoted to each. From the table it will be observed that all the subjects of the elementary curriculum have been considered from the standpoint of minimal essentials, with the exception of music, drawing or art, elementary science or nature-study, and the manual and household arts. An investigation pertaining to the content of elementary science or nature-study has been almost ready for publication for two years; likewise a study of art or drawing is almost ready for publication. Considerable work has also been done toward the determination of the minimal essentials in music, but this study is not so near completion. No investigation of the minimal content in the manual or household arts has been begun, so far as your Committee's work is concerned.

Subject	Part I 1915	Part I 1917	Part I 1918	Total
	Pages	Pages	Pages	Pages
Reading	24	16	6	46
Handwriting	17	13	.....	30
Spelling	12	12	.....	24
Language, composition, and grammar	26	26	17	69
Arithmetic	15	32	20	67
Geography	6	.....	13	19
History	11	30	32	73
Civics	.....	.....	27	27
Literature	6	27	.....	33
Physical education	.....	20	.....	20

Judging from the quantity of the sales on each of the *Yearbooks* and by the investigations modeled on those printed in the *Yearbooks*, which are under way in the departments of education of the normal schools and universities of the country, and by the effects which these reports have produced in modifying courses of study, your Committee regrets that it has been impossible to complete formulations on the subjects which have not thus far been investigated. We believe that as early as possible, either thru this Committee or some other agency, this department should further encourage the scientific study and investigation of the content essential in the elementary curriculum. The subjects thus far investigated should be extended, and studies should be arranged for immediately in those subjects not reported upon thus far.

In closing its report before this department one year ago, the Committee promist that the following lines of work would be pursued with all earnestness during the year which closes with this meeting:

1. Its effort to state the minimum content in the elementary-school subjects will be further extended by including geography, music, elementary science, and drawing, thus

completing, as far as is possible, the work on the reduced content in the elementary-school subjects, interpreting all its recommendations regarding content finally in relation to economy of time.

2. Arrangements have been completed for starting the work of three committees in the field of method. One, in charge of W. C. Bagley, of the University of Illinois, will formulate the "Objectives of Elementary Education on the Basis of the Minimum Content of the Elementary-School Subjects." Coordinately, another committee, in charge of Frank E. Thompson, of the University of Colorado, will formulate the "Purpose of Education in Terms of Activities." Another committee, consisting of Messrs. Bobbitt, Charters, Coffman, Horn, Kilpatrick, Stone, and Wilson, will take up the "Minimal Essentials" in each subject as they have been recommended in the fourteenth and sixteenth yearbooks and as they may be recommended in later publications, and endeavor to organize this content into the successive problems which should be mastered by the pupils from grade to grade in each of the subjects.

3. In the field of organization we propose to start a committee to work at once, under the direction of Dean H. L. Smith, of the University of Indiana, making a survey of the efforts being made above the sixth grade in this country which are resulting in the saving of time between the sixth grade and graduation from high school. This survey will be made in such way as to permit a quantitative report of the results of the survey.

4. As soon as the report of the Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education is available in printed form, we shall constitute the committee necessary to review the report from the standpoint of the organization of the teaching content of each subject as recommended, in such way as to determine where savings may be made.

5. Arrangements have already been completed whereby a study will be made, under the direction of George D. Strayer, of Columbia University, of the extension of school time, both the day and the year, in relation to economy of time.

The progress in the first and second of these proposals is reported in Part I of the *Seventeenth Yearbook*. One hundred and fifteen pages are devoted to reporting the investigations. Eighty-nine pages are devoted to minimal essentials and 26 to the purposes of historical instruction in the seventh and eighth grades. In the further investigation of minimal essentials two studies are concerned with the content of arithmetic, one with geography, one with reading, one and a brief summary with English, two with civics, and one with history. The initial study on objectives in elementary education is a symposium on history organized and carried to completion under the leadership of Dr. W. C. Bagley. The symposium occupies 26 pages and is concerned with the purposes of historical instruction in the seventh and eighth grades.

All of the studies of this *Yearbook* and of the preceding *Yearbooks* containing our reports are concerned with determining the materials which should be incorporated in the course of study of the subject under investigation by finding out what people who are living and working successfully outside the school find need to be able to do, and by determining accurately just what information and skills they need to employ in doing their work successfully.

In his study of "Some Social Demands of the Course of Study in Arithmetic" Mr. Mitchell gathers data from four sources—a standard cookbook, the pay-rolls of a number of factories, marked-down-sales advertisements,

and a general hardware catalog—by which he proceeds to determine what the character of arithmetic taught in the schools should be to enable persons to solve the problems which would arise from any of the four sources. He finds a great frequency of small numbers, especially of fractions and mixt numbers. He finds that the dozen as a unit of production and trade should be taught and in connection therewith, that the aliquot parts of 12 should be taught.

In her study on "What Should Be the Minimal Information about Banking" Miss Cammerer sought to learn what bank employes think that the citizens of their community ought to know about banking. She mailed an inquiry to 50 bank employes and received 35 returns. She also submitted the same inquiry to the parents of the children in the University of Iowa Elementary School. There were 55 items in the inquiry, and the study reports the order of importance assigned each item by the total returns from the bank employes and from parents. From the replies received as to what the citizens of a community ought to know about each item a composite statement showing what ought to be taught about each item was prepared. The study closes with a bibliography containing 24 references.

In their study on "The Determination and Measurement of the Minimal Essentials of Elementary-School Geography" Mr. Branom and Mr. Reavis summarized previous studies to determine minimal essentials in geography. Earlier studies have placed the emphasis almost exclusively on place geography. This investigation holds that any list of minimal essentials in geography that does not emphasize relational facts as well as facts of place is inadequate. The investigators attempt to set up certain standards for the selection of the facts which should be learned and for the relations which should be recognized and appreciated. The method of study is clearly set forth thruout. The study closes with a completion test for the measurement of minimal geographical knowledge of elementary-school children.

In his study of the vocabularies of ten second-year readers Mr. Housh determines scientifically the vocabulary of ten second readers in common use in American elementary schools. He endeavors to find a basis for measuring the quality of readers, in so far as the vocabulary of these readers is a factor in determining their worth. The study determines the entire vocabulary of each of the ten readers and their common vocabulary, then compares the vocabulary of the method and the content readers and shows by means of the vocabularies the relations between these two kinds of readers. The readers used as a basis for the study, the method of procedure, and the results obtained are set forth in detail.

In his report on "Composition Standards in the Elementary Schools" Mr. Hosic shows the sort of composition scale which resulted from the selection of compositions of different degrees of excellence by the general-judgment process rather than by exact, scientific procedure. Compositions of each degree of excellence are printed for each grade. Following this

study Mr. Hosic also summarizes ten recent investigations in the field of English.

Mr. Bassett reports the results of an investigation of the content of the course of study in civics, his object being to determine what should be the content of the course of study in this subject. He sought to find what are the most significant and most persistent problems of the American people which seek solution from the machinery of government. As a basis for answering his inquiry the investigator analyzed the national platforms of all political parties since 1832, the state platforms in non-presidential years since 1889 in so far as they dealt with national issues, all the state platforms of the major parties in 1910, the platforms of the major parties in California, Indiana, and New York since 1850, all the platforms of the parties in Iowa since 1889, and the platforms of one southern state. The method of analysis, the classification of topics, and the results found are set forth in detail. The conclusions which seem justified by the study are summarized in two concluding pages.

In his study of the historical information essential for the intelligent understanding of civic problems Mr. Bassett seeks to discover what history is most necessary to the intelligent understanding of modern political problems, conditions, and activities. The study was based upon the same hypothesis as that used by Dr. Horn in his study reported a year ago in Part I of the *Sixteenth Yearbook*, on "Possible Defects in the Present Content of American History as Taught in the Schools." The study is directed along the same lines as was Dr. Horn's study. The basis for the study and the method of procedure are set forth in detail, as are the results, which are carefully summarized in the concluding five pages of the study.

A method of determining misplacements of emphasis in seventh- and eighth-grade history is reported by Mr. Marston, Mr. McKowan, and Dr. Bagley. The study is an addition to Dr. Bagley's "Study on History" reported in the *Sixteenth Yearbook*, and attempts to determine some misplacements in present-day and recent elementary history teaching. The criteria by which to measure present practices are clearly set forth. While it was not possible to investigate all the materials now comprising the content of elementary history, a very limited area of the field was explored for the purpose of testing the method of procedure. Only the names of persons that are given prominence by 25 elementary textbooks in American history between 1765 and 1865 are subjected to investigation. The method of the study is fully set forth, and the results and interpretations are reported in the concluding four pages.

The symposium on the "Purposes of Historical Instruction in the Seventh and Eighth Grades" carries an introduction and summary by Dr. Bagley and brief papers on the general topic by Mr. Dealy, Mr. Ellwood, Mr. Green, Mr. Hart, Mr. Snedden, Mr. Mace, and an anonymous contrib-

utor. The effort in the symposium is to formulate aims or objectives for the teaching of elementary history and to evaluate current aims and objectives. The emphasis is upon "what ought to be" taught from the point of view of realizing national ideals. In the summary Dr. Bagley tersely states the conclusions which seem justified by the symposium.

With reference to the progress of the Committee on the Problem Organization of the Course of Study, Professor William H. Kilpatrick, of Columbia University, will speak a few minutes later on this program. Likewise Professor Ernest Horn, of the University of Iowa, will indicate the scope and purposes of the work of a committee, of which he is chairman, having in hand the formulation of a report on "Economy in Learning."

With reference to further proposals of a year ago it should be said that Professor Frank E. Thompson, of the University of Colorado, made a report of progress to the Committee on Economy of Time and Cooperating Investigators at their meeting in Chicago last October, but he has not yet completed his formulation for publication.

With reference to the survey by Dean H. L. Smith, of the University of Indiana, of the efforts to save time in the schools of this country between the sixth grade and the close of the high school, I wish to say that I fully expected it would be possible to include this very thoro and extended investigation with the other material in Part I of the *Seventeenth Yearbook*. Unfortunately, however, the study could not be completed in time to include it with the other copy. Arrangements are now pending whereby it will probably be possible to issue it in some form so that the excellent service it should render may be had immediately.

Two other formulations were received too late for printing in Part I of the *Seventeenth Yearbook*. One is entitled "A Critical Summary of Courses in Spelling," and was prepared by Assistant Professor Hugh C. Pryor, of the University of Colorado. The other is a formulation on the "Course of Study in Agriculture and Nature Work," prepared by Mr. J. W. Myer, of the State University of Iowa. Both of these studies are being held with the thought that there will be opportunity at an early date to provide for their publication.

From the addresses to be made later by Professor Kilpatrick and Professor Horn it will be apparent to you that each is in charge of a piece of work which within the next year will result in a publication corresponding to the *Yearbook* containing the present report.

The various meetings of the Committee and considerable correspondence have brought to light many other problems of great significance in relation to economy and efficiency in education. Some of these have already been assigned for study. With reference to others negotiations are under way. All of them and others not yet definitely defined should be attempted as quickly as persons can be interested who will attack them fundamentally and scientifically.

Suggestions from members of the department, or from any other educational source, with reference to problems and questions the Committee should undertake to study will be cordially welcomed.

H. B. WILSON, *Chairman*
F. M. HUNTER
F. E. SPAULDING
F. E. THOMPSON
O. I. WOODLEY

ECONOMY IN LEARNING IN RELATION TO ECONOMY OF TIME

ERNEST HORN, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA, IOWA CITY, IOWA

The work of the Committee on Economy in Learning in Relation to Economy of Time has been directed toward the achievement of economy thru a better selection of what is taught. The assumption has been that as far as the practical application of classroom work is concerned there can be no economy in teaching a child something that he does not need to know, no matter how skilfully such material be taught. The work of this Committee has involved two things: first, the thorogoing acceptance of the point of view of social utility in curriculum making; and second, the substitution of scientific method for mere opinion in the actual selection of the content of the course of study. In subjects where the relation to life is obvious and where the data involved are relatively simple great progress has been made. Such subjects are spelling, writing, and arithmetic. In other subjects, where connection in life outside of school is not so obvious and where the data involved are subtle and elusive, progress, while gratifying, falls far short of a completed solution. There can be no doubt, however, that the *Yearbooks* in which these studies have been reported have had a profound influence in stimulating superintendents in the reconstruction of their course of study.

After one has solved the problem of economy in the course of study in a given subject, however, there remains the further problem of discovering the most economical methods of teaching it. It is this task to which the Committee of Economy has been assigned. There is already a great amount of experimental data in the field of learning, but there has so far been no clearing-house for these data. Much of the material, too is in technical form, so that it must be workt over before it can be of much use to teachers. The Committee proposes to digest this material and to formulate from it answers to practical problems which arise in teaching certain prominent elementary-school subjects. The problem of the Committee can be well illustrated by what is projected for economy of learning in spelling. After

one has decided precisely what words should be taught (apparently there are about 3500 of them) and in what grades these subjects should be taught, and has even made progress in the development of a scale for measuring efficiency in spelling, there is still left the problem of deciding how to teach these words with the greatest economy. Many factors are involved, of which I shall mention but a few. How many words should be taught per lesson? Shall we teach rules in spelling? How shall drill be distributed? What is the relative emphasis which should be given to drill on recall as compared to drill on impression? How shall homonyms be taught? What imagery shall be used? What is the effect of calling attention to errors in spelling? What are the advantages or disadvantages of class as compared with individual instruction? How shall extremely poor spellers be dealt with? Should syllabication be used? Should diacritical marks be used in spelling? Should words related in spelling difficulty be groupt or kept apart?

These are but a few of the more important problems which must be taken into account in developing an efficient method of teaching spelling. During the last ten or fifteen years there has been a very great amount of investigation of these and similar problems. It is the plan of this Committee to gather all of these data, digest them critically, and organize them in a set of directions for teaching this subject. The investigations which suggest economy in learning in drawing, music, arithmetic, beginning algebra, reading, and writing will be treated in a similar way. The Committee has sent an inquiry to all the departments of education in this country asking for publisht and unpublisht studies which have been made at these institutions. While the return is not complete, it is very gratifying. As chairman of the Committee, I wish to invite anyone who is interested to send in original studies on teaching these subjects. If any worthy study is not included in the report of the Committee, it will be due to the fact that there has been a failure on the part of someone to cooperate.

Responsibility for summarizing these studies has been apportioned as follows:

Writing, Professor Freeman, University of Chicago
Arithmetic, Professor Courtis, director, Bureau of Educational Research, Detroit, Mich.
Drawing, Professor Ayer, University of Washington, Seattle, Wash.
Music, Professor Seashore, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa
Reading, Professor Gray, University of Chicago
Spelling, Professor Horn, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa

The Committee realizes the stupendous character of the task to which it has been assigned. The mere labor of gathering the data will be very great. The data in many cases are not conclusive. The Committee, however, proposes to weigh these data and accept even partial evidence as better than nothing, and to work this material into a set of directions so

simple that they can be followed by the classroom teacher. In other words, each member of the Committee proposes to come to bat squarely as to the solution of practical problems in teaching the subject to which he has been assigned. Perhaps no more than a tentative formulation can be expected in the report of this Committee, but it will be a non-technical, plain statement of directions. It is hoped that this formulation will be immediately helpful. It certainly should do much to encourage interest in this sort of work.

THE PROBLEM-PROJECT ATTACK IN ORGANIZATION, SUBJECT-MATTER, AND TEACHING

WILLIAM H. KILPATRICK, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The Committee on Economy of Time decided to bring into existence a subordinate committee to study the problem of so modifying school practice as to utilize the child and the child's resources more effectively than had been done in our customary practice. In particular this subordinate committee, for which I now speak, was charged to consider the proper place in school procedure of the act characterized by definite and conscious purpose on the part of the child. A considerable part of the American teaching body had already become familiar with the use of the problem as a unit of instruction in such studies as geography, and practice in many localities had already tended to justify the claims made in advance from theoretical considerations for such a procedure. The Committee took this as a beginning point, and sought to enlarge the conception to include the wider conception of the purposeful act in general as the basis for its study and formal report.

A number of considerations support the choice of the purposeful act as the typical unit of school procedure. In the first place the purposeful act is the typical unit of the worthy life. In the worthy conduct of every walk and department of life we conceive purposes, we weigh them in the light of their bearings, and we approve or disapprove. If we approve and will these purposes, we proceed to plan and execute them. It is the purpose which gives unity and character to what we do.

If then the purposeful act be made the typical unit of school procedure we are at one and the same time giving to education the quality of life and offering therefore the best preparation for after-school life. It has been increasingly accepted among us that education should be considered as life, but our practice has belied our words. In the conception here advocated the typical unit of life is made the typical unit of school, the two are thus made identical. Education, then, is life. One difficulty in accepting practically that education is life has been the fear that we should not also prepare for the best life after school. If the suggestion here advocated be adopted, we need no longer entertain this fear; the child who has learned to

purpose rightly and to execute efficiently the purposes so made is the child who is best equipt for the life he is later to lead in a democratic society. The purposeful act from these considerations may well be made the typical unit of the school procedure which we seek.

Still more, the purposeful act exactly utilizes the laws of learning. The purpose, acting as psychological "set," makes ready the appropriate responses, defines success, and accordingly by the satisfaction ensuing fixes as habit in the nervous organism the responses that brought success. In this way the knowledge and skill necessary to accomplish the purpose is rendered available as impulse and is fixt as habit. Moreover, being directed by conscious purpose, the various steps are—in proportion to the child's development—intelligently organized to the end in view; so that the learning as a whole is pragmatically organized for further most efficient action. The agent's set or attitude is recognized by competent psychologists as exactly the element needed to push the action thru to completion and at the same time to fix the responses as relatively permanent possessions of the individual's character. The attitude needed for both these ends is exactly provided by the element of purpose upon which we are here insisting.

But I can almost hear some of you protest that I am proposing to weaken the moral fiber of our children, that child purposing means following the line of least resistance. If time allowed, nothing would please me more than to enter upon the argument, in spite of its intricacies. However, I recognize the wide difference that intervenes between the worst of bad purposes and the best of good purposes, and have no notion of leaving the teacher impotent before childish inclination. Some of the child's purposes are good and wholesome and educative, others just the reverse. It is the teacher's duty, as I conceive it, on the one hand to rule out the bad purposes—peaceably if he can, forcibly if he must—and on the other to start those wholesome purposes which we altogether approve. But I am not content with this negative defense. I dare assert that no other type of school procedure so adequately provides the conditions for good character growth as does procedure based on purposeful acts. Our ordinary school, so far as it excludes the element of purpose on the part of the child, exactly excludes the conditions under which moral character is best developt. It is little wonder that the American citizen is too often selfish and wrongly individualistic in his attitude and conduct. Our schools could hardly have been arranged more effectively to produce in him exactly this result. To expect a child to gain self-control by denying to him the opportunity to exercise responsibility is like expecting him to learn to swim out of water. That the result is no worse is probably because our pupils have been so little affected by the natural tendencies of our stupid methods. Nor am I speaking merely from my own imagination. Many skilful teachers all over this country are able to testify to the changed moral attitude that accompanies the wise use of what I am here advocating. Instead of being a weak

point in the program we propose, the moral-character aspect is one of the strong points. The purposeful act under wise guidance amid a social environment makes for the building of exactly that strong and resourceful moral character which democracy so much needs.

It may help us to see the practical workings of the proposed procedure if the various types of possible purposeful acts be considered. The committee distinguishes four types: (1) where the purpose is to embody in outward form some projected aim or end, as when a girl purposes to make a dress or to write a letter, or a group of children purpose to present a play or to organize a debating club; (2) where the purpose is to enjoy some (esthetic) experience, as when a child asks for a story or purposes to read *Robinson Crusoe*, or an older person arranges to go to the opera or to see a sunset; (3) where the purpose is to straighten out some intellectual difficulty, to solve some problem, to understand, for example, how an electric bell rings; (4) when the child purposes to acquire some item or topic of knowledge or skill, or to attain some degree of proficiency in some skill. In a measure each of these has its own specific procedure, an analysis or scheme of its typical process.

It is unnecessary for me to say that the proposed remaking of school procedure on the basis of the purposeful act involves far-reaching modification of current practice, and that the attendant difficulties are indeed formidable. It is of course true that the better kindergartens and graduate seminars already approximate the plan here proposed, as well as do the fruitful pre-school period of childhood, the life-work of our more successful men, and the general out-of-school life of young people. Probably most of my hearers would admit that their own most valued achievements fall also in line. What then shall we do? Shall we refuse to go forward because of the difficulties that confront us? The Committee has no mind to advocate any hasty, wholesale abandonment of what is now working. On the contrary, it feels that modifications must be made gradually. The very working procedure for utilizing the purposeful act is yet in large measure to be devised, altho some successful beginnings have been made. It is here that the Committee's work enters.

It has been arranged that the Committee, in connection with the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education, shall publish by the next meeting of this body a yearbook on the purposeful act and its practice. As at present proposed, the yearbook will consist of three parts: (1) A small body of theory stating in somewhat greater detail the ideas I have tried to sketch above; (2) a collection of actual instances of schoolroom activities which to a greater or less degree illustrate the ideas here advocated; and (3) critical comment upon the reported instances so as to disclose wherein the Committee conceives that the instances do and do not illustrate the theories advocated. It is hoped in this way to get before the American public for study and criticism the conception of the purposeful act and its workings,

at least as conceived by the Committee. The enthusiasm of those who have tried the plan, corroborating as it does the theoretical considerations involved, leads us to hope that the purposeful act may serve to utilize more fully than has our practice hitherto the almost boundless resources of the natures committed to our care.

SCHOOL PRACTICE AS AFFECTED BY THE REPORTS OF THE COMMITTEE ON ECONOMY OF TIME

C. N. KENDALL, COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, TRENTON, N.J.

Why is economy of time in our educational processes not merely important, but of growing importance? Why should our efforts in these processes be, not only intelligent, but increasingly so? Here are three answers:

1. The lessons of the past three and a half years teach us that democracy must be fit, competent, and intelligent. The school is the instrument to bring this about.

2. The responsibilities of education have increast enormously in the past generation. If anyone does not believe this let him compare the number of topics on the program of this meeting with the topics discust at the midwinter meeting in 1898 in Chicago. He is blind to the signs of the times who does not see this.

3. The time is short in which to carry out this greatly enlarged school program. The school year and school day have not been lengthened in proportion to the increast activities of the schools. Children are actually in school not more than one hour out of six when they are awake, giving each child ten hours for sleep. These facts should cause us all to welcome any study or investigation which may correct our practices.

One is struck in reading the *Yearbooks* with the modesty of their claims. They are, not final, but indicative. To them an ambitious superintendent, or principal, or teacher may resort for guidance. The number of such superintendents, principals, and teachers is increasing.

These investigations cover a wide range. They point the way to the right choice of material, to the most appropriate age when children should receive certain types of instruction, to right methods of teaching, to plans for measuring the efficiency of teachers, and to the relation of years of experience in teaching to efficiency in teaching.

The *Yearbooks* deal chiefly with practical questions. Here are some of them: The place of silent reading. Is it worth while to practice it? If so, when and how much? Or shall we go on with the old traditional method of universal oral reading? This question of silent reading has received little attention other than that of personal opinion or guessing about it. What means may be employed to find out the comparative merits of the two plans? The *Yearbooks* attempt to give us an answer by means of

investigation and testing. The facts indicate that the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades are the time when this sort of teaching.should be strest. Much depends, of course, upon method and material. Here then is a contribution to the solution of a problem which is found in practically every schoolroom in America.

One way of teaching penmanship shows as good results in fifty minutes of time devoted to it in a week as another in a hundred minutes. Why? Results in penmanship in Grade V in one system are shown to be as good as results in Grade VII in another system. The same amount of time, however, is used in each. Why this difference in results? Here evidently is waste—a waste which may be eliminated and ought to be eliminated if economy of school time is desirable.

Investigations of the words to be taught in spelling are common now thruout the country. Progress has been made here. We need, however, to give more attention to methods in teaching this subject. Testing is not teaching. Thousands of teachers have not learned this fact.

The *Yearbooks* are rich in suggestions as to the social and business needs regarding arithmetic. As in spelling, so in arithmetic progress has been made in modernizing the nature of instruction.

Yearbooks have helpt in improving English grammar. It appears that the time spent on infinitive construction, participial phrases, voice, and mood, is largely wasted if correct usage in speaking or writing is our aim.

Here then are contributions made by these *Yearbooks* to better teaching in five of the so-called fundamental subjects in elementary schools. These subjects consume by far the greater part of the time in our modern elementary programs. How to bring about economical teaching in these fundamental subjects is a question which the *Yearbooks* attempt to answer but they do not pretend to answer these questions in full.

All these investigations may be carried on by teachers themselves or by their aid. They promote the growth of teachers; they create interest where there was, perhaps, little interest before; they cause teachers to analyze their own work.

A body of teachers is fortunate whose superintendent plans for teacher self-investigation. The effect of this upon schools cannot be otherwise than good. Traditional methods of teaching, traditional things to be taught—these must give an account of themselves under scrutiny.

I remember well the interest and enthusiasm of a group of teachers whom I happened to meet by chance in a railway station. Some of these teachers were in the early twenties. A new superintendent had come to the town who had begun work in tests and measurements, the teachers cooperating. The enthusiasm of these teachers about testing their own work was fine to see.

An observation not set down in the *Yearbook* is this: The more teachers are taught to measure their own work the better; the more

they can take part in these tests the greater their personal growth and interest.

One other observation. There is a danger that teachers—particularly young teachers—may work for good results in objective measurements and ignore the need of spiritual results, which are or should be a result of all teaching. One superintendent voices this caution in the *Yearbooks*.

Perhaps our leading psychologists who have done much to promote a scientific study of education, and some of whom have contributed to the *Yearbooks*, may in the future evolve methods of testing these large values in teaching.

I have attempted to speak of only a few of the large number of subjects in these *Yearbooks*. They are worth while. No superintendent of schools who becomes familiar with their contents can fail to be more thoughtful concerning both methods of teaching and school administration.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PUBLICITY

The Committee on Publicity was created at the last meeting of this department as one of three committees to carry out in detail the recommendations of a report which dealt with certain problems of school administration, especially the problem of the relation of superintendents and boards of education to one another and to the communities which they serve. Publicity of a perfectly definite type, therefore, and only of one type, was intrusted to this Committee. It was our duty under the action of this department to work out a plan designed to bring together and distribute information on the administration of public schools with special regard to the performances of superintendents and boards of education.

Your Committee set up a plan and has given it some trial during the past year. It now begs leave to report the plan, to ask for its approval, and to recommend that provision be made for the vigorous prosecution of the activities which it has initiated.

The plan provides a method, first, of collecting material which is legitimate news matter, and second, of distributing this material.

In order to facilitate the collection and distribution of news material, the Committee divided the United States into ten districts, each centering roughly around the residence of one of the members of the Committee. Each member of the Committee then entered into correspondence with superintendents in his or her district. This correspondence was in the form of letters, all of which included the following general introduction:

> At the meeting of the Department of Superintendence in Kansas City provision was made for a Committee on Publicity. It is the duty of this Committee to take whatever steps are possible to bring to the attention of communities the best types of organization which can be found in American schools.
>
> The Committee is making an effort to collect, with the cooperation of school superintendents and others, rules adopted by boards of education, school charters, and state

school laws which deserve general recognition as examples to be followed. The Committee also aims to find out about school budget systems that are in operation, and any other forms of school administration that ought to be imitated. When material of this sort comes to hand the Committee will see that it is put into the form of news items and distributed.

It is hoped that in this way wide publicity may be secured for matters of school administration. To this end the cooperation of the leading newspapers of the country is sought. Very frequently a superintendent can secure the cooperation of local newspapers in printing news items of the type described above. Sometimes the best form of cooperation with the Committee will be a statement of the need for publicity of this type in a given community, even where there is no possibility of a preliminary arrangement with the local paper for the publication of such news items. The Committee will send items in such cases and aim to secure their publication.

A considerable body of material of the type askt for in this general statement has been collected. The distribution of the material to newspapers and educational journals has been started.

The Committee has conferred with officers of the Bureau of Education of the United States and finds that it is possible to set up very advantageous relations with the Bureau, which is engaged in the collection of similar material and has facilities for the distribution of this material. At the present meeting the Committee has had an opportunity to hold a formal conference with a representative of the Bureau, and plans for this type of cooperation were consummated.

The Committee believes that the fuller development of its plan requires a somewhat larger working force than is now included in the Committee. An enlargement of the membership of the Committee with due regard to geographical distribution is therefore reported as desirable.

The Committee begs leave to submit the following recommendations:

1. That the general plan which is herein reported be carried forward during the coming year by this Committee or by a similar committee appointed to succeed this Committee.

2. That the Committee be authorized to increase its membership to such a number as may be found desirable in carrying on its work.

3. That the officers of the department be directed to request of the trustees of the National Education Association a fund to be used for postage, stationery, and such clerical service as may be necessary in collecting and distributing news material of the type described.

All of which is respectfully submitted:

Charles H. Judd, *Chairman*
I. I. Cammack
Edith K. O. Clark
A. E. Winship
E. C. Hartwell
M. C. Potter
J. H. Francis
J. H. Phillips
O. M. Plummer
Charles C. Hughes

REPORT OF COMMISSION ON ADMINISTRATIVE LEGISLATION

A resolution adopted last year at Kansas City recommended that "a commission of ten be created, to be known as the Commission on Administrative Legislation, to work out details in the form of rules suitable for adoption by boards of education, and model laws to be recommended to legislatures, and to present these to this department for action at the next annual meeting." In the performance of this duty the Commission on Administrative Legislation was instructed to give special attention to board rules and laws now in operation, and to support its recommendations by direct reference to such rules or by-laws. In compliance with these instructions the following tentative report is submitted for your consideration. The adoption of the resolution recommending the creation of this Commission resulted from the report of the Committee on Relation between Boards of Education and Superintendents, which submitted to the department at its Kansas City meeting a report including certain general principles which should be followed in the organization and determination of the powers of boards of education, and which should govern the relation between boards of education and superintendents. The following statements briefly summarize these principles, which were adopted by the Department of Superintendence and which governed this Commission in its preparation of this report:

1. A board of education should represent the school district as a whole and not by districts or wards.

2. The board of education should not be a subordinate body to any other branch of local government, but should have complete autonomy.

3. Definite and large responsibilities should be placed upon the executive head of the schools—the superintendent—if possible by the general law under which the board of education is organized, and where such definite power is not secured by the law itself such powers should be specifically delegated to the superintendent by the by-laws adopted by the board of education for the organization and conduct of the school system. Such laws or by-laws ought to provide for the superintendent the right of initiative in such matters as the nomination and discharge of subordinates, the courses of study and the selection of textbooks, and a determining voice in matters of building and equipment and in the preparation of the budget to be submitted to the board of education for its consideration.

In the consideration of the question as to the material to be presented to the department in this report, it was determined to follow, as far as possible, the exact suggestions of the resolution establishing the Commission, and to submit to the department certain by-laws which seem to carry out to a very great extent the principles already approved by the department. The members of the Commission were asked to study the rules and by-laws of boards of education with which they were familiar, and to endeavor to determine whether fundamental by-laws needed to differ materially in their form and content when designed for large city school districts or for

small units. Some study of these principles and a study of certain typical by-laws seem to indicate that there is no occasion for any such distinction.

It is true that in many of the larger school districts it is necessary that a department of business be establisht with administrative officers and the other paraphernalia of a business organization, but the fundamental principles governing this organization are the same even when the amount of this special business is not so great as to prevent the superintendent himself from directly administering it. In both small towns and large cities the relation of the board of education to the superintendent should be the same. The same general powers and the same privilege of initiative should exist in both cases.

Nor need there be any special difference in the organization of the board of education itself. The abolition of permanent committees and subcommittees of the board of education is equally desirable in large school units and in small school systems. Nor is there any occasion for changed methods in the technical operations of the board of education and its business department.

The following by-laws and rules of certain typical cities are submitted as embodying the approved principles of organization. It is easy to see that a large school system needs to have provision in its by-laws for the appointment of assistant superintendents, various supervisors, business manager, or assistant superintendents in charge of the business, subordinate in either case to the superintendent, special officials, such as chief engineer, supervising architects, etc., which might not be necessary at all in the by-laws of a small system. With these necessary modifications and other modifications in phraseology which may be necessary to comply technically with general or special school laws governing the organization of boards of education in various communities, it is believed that these typical by-laws and rules may be safely used as models for school systems whose rules need revision. It should be understood that this Commission is not submitting the entire rules or by-laws of these boards of education, but only such articles as have direct bearing upon the question of organization. Your Commission feels that a study of these by-laws indicates that widely different communities are at the present time operating under rules essentially the same, and is therefore encouraged in its belief that there need be little fundamental difference in such by-laws, and that, in many cases, cities now operating under the cumbersome plan of highly organized committee government with the necessarily sharp limitation of the powers and initiative of the superintendent may be placed under a simpler and more direct administration. The fact that this tendency toward simplification is in such absolute harmony with general tendencies in governmental procedure encourages us in our belief that in the immediate future many cites may improve their school organization thru a study of the principles herewith enumerated and the particular rules herewith submitted.

MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA

BY-LAWS OF THE BOARD

I. ORGANIZATION

1. The meeting of the board for organization shall be held on the first Monday after January 1 of each year succeeding the biennial election of directors. It shall be called to order by the secretary, or in his absence by a senior member of the board, and a president and secretary *pro tempore* shall be chosen. The board shall then elect a president and a secretary for the ensuing two years.

2. The regular meetings of the board shall be held at its office on the second and last Tuesday of each month at 2:00 p.m.

3. The order of business shall be as follows:

a) Calling to order
b) Approval of minutes
c) Report of superintendent
d) Report of business superintendent
e) Report of committees
f) Petitions and communications
g) Unfinished business
h) New business
i) Claims and accounts

4. *Roberts' Rules of Order* shall be the authority unless otherwise provided.

5. The president shall preside at all meetings of the board, appoint all committees not otherwise ordered, and perform such duties as are provided by law. In the absence of the president from any meeting, a president *pro tempore* shall be elected.

6. The secretary shall audit all claims, approve all bills, and perform such duties as are provided by law.

7. At the first regular meeting in February, or at any regular meeting when there is a vacancy in the superintendency, the board shall elect a superintendent of schools for a three-year term, which shall begin on August first, following the election, or on such other date as may be determined by the board.

8. The board shall employ an assistant superintendent in charge of business affairs and an assistant secretary, who shall be secretary to the superintendent, in accordance with the rules of the civil service commission, all of whom shall be and act under the general direction of the superintendent.

9. Special committees of the board, appointed by the president unless otherwise ordered, shall investigate and act for the board in such ministerial matters as may be assigned to them by the board and in other matters, subject to the approval of the board. Such committees shall report to the board in writing in such manner and at such times as called upon by the board.

10. Any by-law of the board may be enacted, amended, repealed, or suspended only at a regular meeting of the board and by unanimous vote of the full board membership, except that where notice of such proposed action shall have been given in writing at the regular meeting last preceding, such enactment, amendment, repeal or suspension may be made by the affirmative vote of five (5) members of the board.

II. SUPERINTENDENT

The superintendent is the executive officer of the board for the management of the schools.

He shall:

1. Attend the regular and special meetings of the board, and shall cooperate and advise with all committees of the board.

2. Prepare and submit to the board by-laws, rules, and regulations for the proper conduct and guidance of the board and the management of the schools.

3. Arrange and change the boundaries of the school districts, subject to the approval of the board.

4. Investigate the need of, and recommend to the board, provision for school facilities in the various districts.

5. When called upon, give written opinions to the board or its committees of all matters to be acted upon, and make written monthly reports of the general condition of the schools, with such recommendations for their improvement as require action of the board; at the second regular meeting in July he shall submit an annual report.

6. Recommend to the board from time to time administrative officers, principals supervisors, and teachers, and, in accordance with the rules of the Civil Service Commission where applicable, physicians, nurses, stenographers, clerks, and other employes as there is need for employment during the year; and on or before the last board meeting in March each year recommend principals for reappointment, and on or before the last board meeting in April of each year recommend teachers for reappointment, with salaries in accordance with the salary schedules.

7. When called upon by the board, cause to meet in conference with the board any person whom he may wish to recommend for appointment; and submit for approval of the board proposed transfers from one type of position to another.

8. Recommend to the board for approval courses of study and important changes in courses of study and all textbooks to be used in the schools.

9. Prepare in conference with the assistant superintendent in charge of business affairs an annual budget, showing by departments appropriations necessary to meet the estimated needs of the ensuing school year, and submit the same to the board for approval on or before the first regular meeting in May each year.

10. Immediately after the school tax has been allowed by the tax levy board and the same has been levied by the board, prepare and submit a detailed budget of estimated expenditures for each department of the school system during the then current fiscal year.

11. Within the limits of the detailed budget of estimated expenditures for the year, duly approved by the board, have power to approve and direct all purchases and expenditures, making to the board at any time such report of expenditures, in addition to the monthly report of the auditor, as the board may request.

12. Recommend to the board transfers from one budget to another as conditions may require.

13. In the interest of efficient administration have power to decide all matters of detail purely ministerial and administrative in character that may arise concerning which no specific provision is made in these by-laws, rules, and regulations. All decisions of the superintendent as herein authorized, must be reported by him to the board not later than the first regular meeting of the board following such decisions.

III. THE ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT IN CHARGE OF BUSINESS AFFAIRS

The assistant superintendent in charge of business affairs is responsible for the construction, operation, and maintenance of buildings and equipment, maintenance of grounds, accounting and auditing, purchase, storage and distribution of stores, insuring school property, supervision of all building by contract, safe-keeping of documents and records, and shall:

1. Give bond for the faithful performance of his duties.

2. When required, attend meetings of the board and advise and cooperate with the board's committees.

3. Represent the board under its direction in negotiations relating to the construction, repair, and maintenance of school property.

4. Purchase, receipt for, store, and distribute books, supplies, and materials as authorized by the board and as directed by the superintendent.

5. Recommend to the board thru the superintendent from time to time such assistants, stenographers, clerks, engineers, janitors, foremen, and mechanics as shall be needed for continuous employment in the business department; and have authority, with the approval of the superintendent, to employ for brief periods such workmen as are necessary for the execution of the work of this department, and to discharge the same, provided that all employment herein specified shall be made in accordance with the rules of the Civil Service Commission.

6. Make to the board thru the superintendent written monthly report of the general condition of the buildings and other property of the board as to repairs, construction, and improvement, including such requests of principals as require action of the board, with recommendations thereon.

7. Supervise all matters of repair and have general charge of all buildings belonging to the board.

8. Make and keep accurate and reliable real- and personal-property records which shall give the cost, time of purchase or acquisition, present value, and the location of the property.

9. Cause the property of the board to be insured in such amounts as the board may from time to time direct, and keep a record of insurance placed on school property.

10. Examine contracts and other papers in which the board is a party.

11. Receive tuition fees, money from the sale of books or other school property, the use of buildings or other sources, except such as are paid to the city treasurer according to law, and deposit all moneys collected by him with the city treasurer.

12. Audit all claims, approve all bills, and submit the same to the secretary of the board for his audit and approval.

13. Audit and control all cash collections received by agents of the board and determine the kind and form of reports to be required of such collecting agents.

14. Keep the revenue and expense, asset and liability accounts, bugdet-allotment ledger, registers of purchase orders, vouchers and warrants, expenditure distribution record by schools, civil service and pay-roll rosters, registers of leases, rents, personal bonds, and building construction contracts.

15. Draw all warrants in payment of claims against the board.

16. Submit to the board a monthly report of receipts, disbursements, and budget balances at the first meeting each month, and an annual report at the second regular meeting in July each year.

17. Act as custodian of all contracts, securities, documents, title papers, books of record, and other papers belonging to the board.

18. Perform such other duties as may be assigned by the board or the superintendent.

IV. THE ASSISTANT SECRETARY OF THE BOARD AND SECRETARY TO THE SUPERINTENDENT

The assistant secretary of the board, who shall be the secretary to the superintendent, shall:

1. Have immediate charge of stenographers, clerks, and other employes in the educational department of the administrative offices.

2. Keep the minutes of the meetings of the board and a calendar of all matters referred to committees and others, and report action or non-action on the same at each regular meeting.

3. Within three days after the meeting send a copy of the minutes of every meeting to every member of the board.

4. Forty-eight hours before each regular meeting send to every member of the board and to the superintendent written notice of the meeting, with calendar of all matters to

be brought before the meeting so far as these are known at the time of sending the notice.

5. Receive and reply to all communications to the board according to directions of the board.

6. Perform such other duties as may be directed by the board, the secretary of the board, or the superintendent.

RULES FOR THE USE OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION IN THE GOVERNMENT OF THE CITY SCHOOLS, HURON, SOUTH DAKOTA

1. The meeting of the board of education for organization will be held the last Friday of May of each year. It shall be called to order by the clerk. The board shall then elect a president, a vice-president, and a clerk for the ensuing year.

2. The regular meetings of the board shall be held at the office of the superintendent on the last Friday of each month.

3. The order of business shall be as follows:

a) Reading and approval of minutes
b) Claims and accounts
c) Communications
d) Reports and recommendations of the superintendent
e) Unfinisht business
f) New business
g) Reports of special committees

4. *Robert's Rules of Order* shall be used in conducting the business of the board.

5. The president shall preside at all meetings of the board, appoint all special committees not otherwise ordered, and perform such other duties as are provided by law. In the absence of the president from any meeting, the vice-president shall preside.

6. Special committees of the board, appointed by the president, unless otherwise ordered, shall investigate and act for the board in such ministerial matters as may be assigned; but no standing committees shall be appointed. If so ordered, such special committees shall report to the board in writing in such manner and at such times as ordered by the board.

7. At the regular meeting in January, or at any regular meeting when there is a vacancy in the superintendency, the board shall elect a superintendent of schools for a three-year term, which shall begin on August first, following the election, or on such other date as may be determined by the board.

8. At any regular meeting of the board any rule or regulation governing the schools may be enacted, amended, or repealed by a majority vote of the full board membership, provided that notice of such action shall have been given at the last regular meeting preceding.

9. The superintendent is the executive officer of the board of education for the management of the schools.

10. He shall attend the regular and special meetings of the board and shall be a member of, and advise with, all special committees of the board.

11. He shall prepare and submit to the board rules and regulations for the management of the schools.

12. He shall investigate the need of, and recommend to the board, provision for school facilities in the school system.

13. He shall, when called upon, give written opinions to the board or its special committees of all matters to be acted upon, and make written reports of the general condition of the schools, with such recommendations for their improvement as require action of the board. At the regular meeting in July he shall submit an annual report.

14. He shall recommend to the board, from time to time, principals, supervisors, and teachers, and the other employes of the school system as there is need for such employment during the year, and the board shall elect no school employe not recommended by the superintendent. On or before the last Friday of March each year the superintendent shall submit the names of persons recommended to be appointed or reappointed for the ensuing year.

15. He shall recommend to the board for approval important changes in courses of study and textbooks to be used by the schools.

16. He shall have power to suspend any pupil from the schools whenever in his judgment the best interests of the school demand such action, such suspension to be reported to the board at its next regular meeting.

17. He shall prepare an annual budget showing by departments appropriations necessary to meet the estimated needs of the ensuing school year, and submit the same to the board for approval on or before the regular meeting in June each year.

18. He shall within the limits of the detailed annual budget for the year, duly approved by the board, have power to direct expenditures and purchases, the board auditing all bills and accounts at each regular meeting, and at the close of each semester in January and June checking all expenditures in terms of the annual budget.

19. He shall recommend to the board transfers from one budget item to another as conditions may require.

20. In the interest of efficient administration he shall have power to decide all matters of detail purely ministerial and administrative in character that may arise, concerning which no specific provision is made in these rules and regulations. All important decisions of the superintendent as herein authorized must be reported by him to the board not later than the first regular meeting of the board following such decisions.

BY-LAWS OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE CITY OF DETROIT

I. ORGANIZATION

1. The annual meeting of the board shall be held at twelve noon on the first day of July of each year, except when said day shall be Sunday, in which case it shall be held on the day following. At this meeting a president and president *pro tem* shall be elected for the ensuing year and, unless their term of office shall expire at the end of the year, until their successors are elected and have qualified. This meeting shall be otherwise a regular meeting of the board.

2. The officers of the board shall be a president and a president *pro tem.* The election of these officers shall be by a viva voce vote in each case. The majority of the members of the board present shall be necessary in such case to elect.

3. The president shall have the usual powers and he shall be charged with the ordinary duties pertaining to that office. He shall appoint all special committees, unless otherwise ordered, and call meetings of the board when he shall deem it necessary.

4. The president *pro tem* shall have the powers and perform the duties of the president in case of the absence from the city, sickness, disability, or death of that officer.

5. Regular meetings of the board shall be held on the second and fourth Thursdays of each month, at 8:00 o'clock p.m., excepting that the first regular meeting of July in each year shall be held on the day prescribed by Rule 1.

6. Special meetings may be called by the president, or by not less than three members, but no business shall be transacted except that for which the meeting was called, and which shall be stated in the call. Notice shall be sent by mail or messenger at least twenty-four hours before the hour of meeting.

7. On or before the first day of May in each year the board shall appoint suitable persons to take the school census as prescribed by law, at a compensation to be fixt by the board, and approve the bills, if correct, for doing this work.

8. The board shall appoint the following officers: superintendent of schools, business manager, secretary, architect (when needed), engineer (when needed), and such other officers as may be required from time to time.

9. Order of business:
First—Reading of minutes of the last meeting or meetings
Second—Communications from the superintendent
Third—Reports of special committees
Fourth—Unfinisht business
Fifth—New business

10. The rules of parliamentary practice comprised in *Roberts' Rules of Order* shall govern the board in all cases not otherwise herein provided.

II. SUPERINTENDENT

The superintendent of schools shall be the executive officer of the board of education, and under its direction he shall attend all meetings of the board and be granted the privilege of taking part in its deliberations.

1. He shall establish and change the boundaries of school districts.

2. He alone shall be directly responsible to the board of education for the efficient operation of all school functions of the board of education.

3. He shall have sole power to nominate and to assign, transfer, promote, and demote or suspend all assistant superintendents, supervisors, principals, teachers, and other employes of the board of education as hereinafter provided. All nominations, promotions, demotions, suspensions, assignments, and transfers of employes of the board of education which shall be made by the superintendent shall be reported in writing to the board at its next regular meeting and shall stand confirmed unless disapproved by the board by a vote of not less than four members of the board. He shall have immediate control of all assistant superintendents, supervisors, principals, and teachers. All directions and suggestions to them with reference to the performance of their respective duties shall come thru him.

4. He shall prepare and submit to the board for approval the several courses of study to be followed, and shall select and recommend to the board for adoption all textbooks used in the schools. In the preparation of such courses and the selection of such textbooks he shall have the cooperation of other officers of instruction and of such special committees of teachers, principals, and supervisors as he may from time to time appoint for such specific purposes.

5. He shall, on or before the first meeting of January, submit to the board of education an estimate of expenditure for all purposes of the board of education for the ensuing year.

III. BUSINESS MANAGER

The business manager shall be the secretary of the board and shall be directly responsible to, and under the direction of, the superintendent of schools for the efficient administration of the construction, maintenance, and operation of buildings, purchase, storage, and distribution of supplies, accounting and auditing, and insuring of school property.

1. He shall furnish bond to the amount of $10,000, cost to be assumed by the board of education.

2. He shall maintain an accounting procedure adequate to record in detail all transactions affecting the acquisition, custodianship, and disposition of values, including cash receipts and disbursements.

3. He shall submit, thru the superintendent at the first regular monthly meeting of the board a statement showing the status of each appropriation item and such other

statements as may from time to time be deemed advisable to show the financial condition of the board.

4. He shall prepare an inventory of the property of the board as of June 30 of each year, and submit the same thru the superintendent to the board not later than August 1 of each year.

5. He shall recommend, thru the superintendent, to the board, the employment and dismissal of all subordinates under his jurisdiction.

6. He shall purchase all supplies and materials approved for purchase by the board, and shall store and distribute the same.

7. He shall have general control of all persons employed in the department of the business manager and shall be responsible for the operation of all buildings.

8. He shall have general supervision of all the repairs to buildings authorized by the board, and of the maintenance of the land and buildings of the board.

9. He shall be responsible for the construction and alteration of buildings in accordance with the plans and specifications approved by the board.

10. He shall be the custodian of all property, real or personal, owned or borrowed by the board.

IV. SUPERVISOR

The supervisor shall inspect construction of new buildings and additions to buildings and extensive repairs upon buildings; shall keep watch of expenditures in such construction and repair work, and shall perform such other duties as may be assigned him by the business manager.

V. CHIEF ENGINEER

The chief engineer shall be directly responsible to the business manager of this board for the maintenance and operation of the heating and ventilating plants in the various schools, and for the cleaning of the various buildings by the janitor force, and for general repairs and supervision of school property, and shall be responsible for the requisitions and specifications of materials involved in said maintenance and general repairs.

The chief engineer shall be charged with the responsibility for economy and efficiency in his department and to that end shall have the authority to hire or discharge any employe in his department.

VI. ASSISTANT SECRETARY OF THE BOARD

The business manager shall designate from his official staff, subject to the approval of the board, some person as assistant secretary of the board, who shall keep the minutes of the meetings of the board and a calendar of all minutes referred to the special committees and others, and report action or non-action on same at each regular meeting. Forty-eight hours before each meeting he shall send each member of the board and superintendent a written notice of the meeting with calendar of all minutes to be brought before the meeting, so far as these are known at the time of sending the notice; receive and reply to all communications of the board according to the directions of the board.

The assistant secretary shall, in case of the absence, sickness, disability, or death of the secretary, perform the duties of the secretary until a new business manager is elected by the board.

VII. TREASURER

The treasurer of the city of Detroit shall be the treasurer of the board of education (Act No. 132, Laws of 1903).

VIII. LIBRARY COMMISSIONERS

A member of the board of commissioners of the Public Library shall be elected by a viva voce vote at the first regular meeting in December of each year. Elections to fill vacancies in the board of commissioners of the Public Library shall be by viva voce vote

IX. EXPENDITURES

1. *a*) All purchases of furniture and supplies and of all material needed in making repairs and in doing any work shall be made by the business manager, under direction of the superintendent. All purchases exceeding $100 in amount shall be made from the lowest responsible bidder, unless the board otherwise directs. Purchases shall be made upon numbered orders, and when bills are rendered for such goods, said bills shall give the number of the order upon which goods were supplied.

b) In case of urgent necessity the business manager shall be authorized to incur a liability not exceeding two hundred dollars.

2. *a*) Pay-rolls for salaries, estimates of contractors, and bills for payment of all purchases must in all cases be properly certified and attached to a voucher on which shall be entered the name, date, amount, etc. When so certified and audited, the voucher shall be presented to the board, and if the board shall approve and order payment of same, such action, with the date thereof, shall be indorsed thereon by the business manager. No bills shall be paid unless so audited and approved.

b) All teachers, engineers, janitors, workmen, and other employes drawing money from the board of education, and all claims duly approved as provided by law shall be paid by the city treasurer after being certified by the city controller.

3. Salaries of all positions shall be named at the time or before the nomination or appointment. The pay or workmen shall be fixt by the business manager, at the time of employment, and be at a rate per day.

X. FUNDS

The funds of the board, which shall be kept under separate accounts in conformity with the appropriations allowed by the common council and board of estimates, shall consist of the following:

1. Building Fund—To which shall belong all moneys levied and collected, and which are to be expended for land, buildings, and permanent improvements, as provided in Section 14 of the Amended School Act.

2. Maintenance Fund—To which shall belong all moneys collected for the payment of salaries of janitors, officers, and clerks, for the payment of repairs, both general and special, and all other moneys collected, not specifically provided for.

3. Teachers' Salary Fund—To which shall belong all moneys appropriated and collected for the payment of salaries of teachers.

4. The Contingent Fund is a sum not exceeding two hundred and fifty dollars (belonging to the Maintenance Fund), placed in the custody of the business manager, who shall be accountable for the same.

From the Contingent Fund the business manager is authorized to advance or pay incidental or petty expenses, also items of urgently needed supplies, subject to the approval of the proper committees, and reimbursement thru the action of the board.

XI. SCHOOL CENSUS

The school census of the city must be taken according to law, within twenty days next preceding the first day in June of each year, and the same, with the affidavit of its correctness, to be made by the person or persons taking it, shall be filed with the business manager on or before the last-named day. Said school census shall show the number of children between five and (under) twenty years of age, and the number between fourteen and eighteen, and such other information as may be called for.

XII. REMOVALS

Any officer of this board, whether elected or appointed, may be removed for cause by a vote of two-thirds of the members-elect, under such form of procedure as a majority of the board may direct for the particular occasion.

XIII. AMENDMENTS

These rules may be amended at any regular meeting by a vote of not less than four members of the board, said amendment having been proposed at a previous meeting.

XIV. RULES MAY BE SUSPENDED

The by-laws and rules of the board of education may be suspended at any regular meeting of the board by a two-thirds vote of the members present.

BY-LAWS OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS, SCHOOL DISTRICT NUMBER ONE, CITY AND COUNTY OF DENVER

ARTICLE I

SECTION 1. The twentieth amendment of the constitution of the state of Colorado, adopted November, 1902, and declared effective by the governor, December 1, 1902, declares this district to be a body corporate, by the name and style of "School District Number One in the City and County of Denver, and State of Colorado."

SECTION 2. The regular election for filling vacancies in the board of directors shall be held biennially, according to law, on the first Monday in May.

SECTION 3. The board of directors shall consist of five (5) members, elected in accordance with law, for a term of six (6) years each.

SECTION 4. The certificate of election or appointment of members of the board of directors and oaths of office shall be kept on record with the secretary, and on file with the county superintendent. The oath of office shall be made before a notary public within ten (10) days after election.

SECTION 5. At the first meeting of the board of directors after the annual election, the board shall proceed to organize by the electing of a president, who shall be a member of the board, a secretary, and a treasurer. The terms of office of these officers shall be two (2) years.

SECTION 6. At the first regular meeting in January, or at any regular meeting when there is a vacancy in the superintendency, the board shall elect a superintendent of schools for the term of three (3) years, which shall begin July first, following the election, or on such other date as may be determined by the board.

SECTION 7. At the January meeting, the board of directors shall employ an assistant superintendent in charge of business affairs for a term of two (2) years, who shall be and act under the general direction of the superintendent of schools, and at this meeting the board shall also employ an attorney for the district for a term of two (2) years.

ARTICLE II

SECTION 1. The president, when present, shall preside at all meetings of the board and the district. He shall sign all contracts, bonds, and orders for the payment of money. He shall appoint all committees, unless otherwise ordered. The president shall also be custodian of the official bond of the secretary, which shall be recorded in the records of the corporation, and kept by him in a box in a safe deposit company. He shall exercise such other powers as properly appertain to his office, or which may be conferred upon him by the board.

SECTION. 2. The secretary shall have charge of all records of the board of directors and of the district. He shall be custodian, and shall keep in a fireproof vault, or other safe place, all contracts, securities, documents, title papers, books of record, insurance policies, receipts, bills, canceled bonds, coupons, and warrants, and, with the exception of his own bond, other papers belonging to the school district.

SECTION 3. The secretary shall have charge of the accounting and bookkeeping department of the board of directors, and of the bookkeepers, stenographers, clerks, and other employes in this department, and, with the approval of the superintendent of schools

he shall recommend to the board, from time to time, such employes as shall be needed for the execution of his work.

SECTION 4. The secretary shall keep the minutes of the meetings of the board of directors and a calendar of all matters referred to committees and others, and report action, or non-action, on the same at each regular meeting.

SECTION 5. The secretary shall send written notices of both special and regular meetings, as provided by these by-laws, and he shall, within three (3) days after each meeting, send a copy of the minutes of each meeting to each member of the board of directors, to the attorney, to the superintendent of schools, and to the assistant superintendent in charge of business affairs. He shall receive and reply to all communications to the board, according to the direction of the board.

SECTION 6. The secretary shall cause the property of the board to be insured in such amounts and with such agents as the board may, from time to time, direct, and he shall keep a record of the insurance on all school property.

SECTION 7. The secretary shall prepare the pay-roll upon information given him by the superintendent and his assistants.

SECTION 8. The secretary shall audit all bills and claims against the district. He shall also draw all warrants in payment of claims against the district.

SECTION 9. The secretary shall audit all cash collections received by the agents of the board and, with the approval of the superintendent of schools, shall determine the kind and form of reports to be required of such collecting agents. He shall receive all moneys collected from tuition, fines, sale of textbooks, sale of school property, lunchroom sales, supplies, use of school property, etc., and he shall deliver the same to the treasurer of the district at least once a month.

SECTION 10. The secretary shall submit to the board of directors and superintendent a monthly report of receipts, disbursements, and budget balances at the regular meeting of the board, and an annual report at the July meeting each year.

SECTION 11. The secretary shall perform all duties imposed upon him by law, and such other duties as may be directed by the board of directors.

SECTION 12. The treasurer of the district shall receive all moneys accruing from the sale of bonds, and shall pay out the same upon warrants signed by the president and secretary on account of erection and furnishing of school buildings and the purchase of school grounds. He shall countersign all warrants drawn upon the county treasurer.

SECTION 13. The treasurer of the district shall keep all necessary accounts pertaining to the duties of his office, and shall render a semiannual report of all moneys received and disburst by him. He shall furnish such bonds as shall be required by the board.

SECTION 14. The superintendent of schools shall be the executive officer of the board of directors for the management of schools. He shall attend all meetings of the board, unless there is urgent reason for his absence, and he shall cooperate and advise with all committees of the board. He shall have power to make rules not in conflict with law or these by-laws.

SECTION 15. The superintendent shall investigate the need of, and recommend to the board, provision for school facilities in the various districts. When called upon, he shall give opinions to the board or its committees of all matters to be acted upon, and he shall make monthly reports of the general condition of the schools, with such recommendations as he thinks best for their improvement, and which require the action of the board.

At the regular meeting in July, he shall submit an annual report.

SECTION 16. The superintendent shall recommend to the board, from time to time, administrative officers. He shall also recommend attendance officers, principals, supervisors, and teachers, in accordance with the rules of the board, physicians, nurses, stenographers, clerks and other employes in the educational department, as there is need for employes during the year, and before the first day of May, each year, submit the names of all persons to be appointed or reappointed for the ensuing year, with salary.

SECTION 17. The superintendent shall assign all teachers to their positions in the schools, and shall have power to make such change in the position of any teacher as may be necessary for the interest of the school. He shall determine the time and place for the examinations of applicants for positions as teachers; and he shall conduct or cause to be conducted, examinations of applicants for positions as teachers.

SECTION 18. The superintendent shall have power to suspend, temporarily, any teacher or other employe working under his direction, pending the action of the board; and he shall have power to suspend from the privileges of school any pupil guilty of infraction of the rules of the school. Pupils suspended may be reinstated by the superintendent.

SECTION 19. The superintendent shall recommend to the board, for approval, courses of study and improved courses of study, and all textbooks to be used in the schools. He shall prepare, in conference with the assistant superintendent in charge of business affairs, an annual budget showing, by departments, appropriations necessary to meet estimated needs of the ensuing year, and he shall submit the same to the board for approval on or before the first regular meeting in May of each year. He shall, within the limits of the detailed budget of estimated expenses for the year, duly approved by the board, have power to approve and direct all purchases and expenditures, making to the board at any time, in addition to the monthly report, such report of expenditures as the board may request. He shall recommend to the board the transfers from one budget to another, as conditions may require.

SECTION 20. In the interest of efficient administration he shall have power to decide all matters of detail, purely ministerial and administrative in character.

SECTION 21. The assistant superintendent in charge of business affairs shall have charge of the construction, operation, and maintenance of buildings and equipment, the maintenance of grounds, the purchase, storage, and distribution of supplies, material, and equipment, as authorized and directed by the superintendent of schools. And the assistant superintendent in charge of business affairs shall have the supervision of the erection of all buildings. He shall make such reports of the general condition of school property as may be directed by the superintendent of schools. He shall make an annual report to the board and to the superintendent of the general condition of the buildings and other property of the district as to repairs, construction, and improvement. He shall supervise all matters of repairs, and have general charge of all buildings belonging to the board.

SECTION 22. The assistant superintendent in charge of business affairs shall recommend to the board thru the superintendent from time to time such assistants, stenographers, clerks, engineers, janitors, foremen, and mechanics as shall be needed for continuous employment in his department; and he shall have authority, with the approval of the superintendent, to employ such workmen or other employes as are necessary for the execution of the work in this department, and to discharge the same. He shall attend all meetings of the board, unless there is urgent reason for his absence, and he shall give bond for such amount for faithful performance of his duties as shall be required by the board.

SECTION 23. The attorney shall attend all meetings of the board unless there is urgent reason for absence, shall represent the district and such officers and employes of the district as the board shall direct in all proceedings at law to which the district, the board, or any such employe shall be a party, as such, shall render opinions on the legality of titles of property of the district and of contracts entered into by the district, when requested so to do. He shall, when requested, advise the board, or any member or employe of it, on matters pertaining to the business or conduct of the district or its schools.

ARTICLE III

SECTION 1. The regular meetings of the board of directors shall be held on the second Wednesday of each calendar month, and on the last Saturday of the months of March, June, September, and December at the hour of 8 p.m. All meetings of the board shall be held in the offices of the board.

SECTION 2. The order of business at all regular meetings shall be as follows:

1. Roll call
2. Approval of minutes
3. Report of superintendent
4. Report of assistant superintendent in charge of business affairs
5. Report of committees
6. Petitions and communications
7. Report of secretary
8. Unfinisht business
9. New business
10. Claims and accounts

Section 3. Special meetings of the board of directors shall be called by the secretary, upon the written request of three (3) members of the board. Written notices of every meeting, whether special or regular, shall be delivered or mailed to the Denver address of each member of the board at least twenty-four (24) hours prior to the time designated for such meeting.

SECTION 4. The majority of all members shall be necessary to constitute a quorum for the transaction of business.

SECTION 5. Upon the request of one (1) member, the "ayes" and "nays" shall be taken upon any motion before the board of directors. Each member present shall vote "aye" or "no" upon all questions, unless excused by the board of directors.

SECTION 6. Except as herein otherwise specified, the proceedings of the board shall be governed by the rules prescribed in *Roberts' Rules of Order*.

SECTION 7. The board of directors shall have one (1) standing committee, designated as the committee of the whole. Preceding each board meeting, when convenient, there shall be a meeting of the committee of the whole for the consideration of all matters pertaining to school affairs.

SECTION 8. Special committees of the board appointed by the president, unless otherwise ordered, shall investigate and act for the board in such ministerial matters as may be assigned to them by the board, and in other matters subject to the approval of the board. Such committees shall report to the board in writing, in such manner and at such times as called upon by the board.

SECTION 9. At any regular meeting of the board any by-law of the board may be enacted or repealed by a majority vote of the full board membership, provided that notice of the proposed action shall have been given at the regular meeting last preceding; any by-law may be suspended at any meeting by the unanimous vote of the full board favoring such suspension.

Your Commission has given some consideration to the question of a model school law, but has not been able to complete its study, and asks that it be continued for another year in order that it may give more consideration to this problem and submit a special report concerning the subject.

Respectfully submitted

C. E. CHADSEY, *Chairman*
J. D. SHOOP
H. S. WEET
MARY C. C. BRADFORD
CALVIN N. KENDALL
FRANK E. SPAULDING
WILLIAM M. DAVIDSON
ELLIS U. GRAFF
E. C. MOORE
E. A. EASTON

THE REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON COOPERATION OF BOARDS OF EDUCATION

The field in which this Committee has been appointed to work has been practically untilled up to the present time. In many localities a fine spirit of cooperation between the official representatives of the people and the active members of the teaching profession has always existed, but there has been as yet no national movement to organize the lay leadership constituted by the membership of boards of education the country over for the purpose of studying the great objectives of public education in a broad way, and of cooperating with the professional forces so organized.

Attempts to organize associations of members of boards of education have frequently been made upon a state basis; in fact, some dozen or more organizations of this kind are now in existence either as sections of the state associations or as separate organizations. The states having such organizations are as follows:

Illinois: Illinois School Board Association
Louisiana: School Board Association
Massachusetts: School Officers' Conference
Michigan: Association of School Boards
Minnesota: Minnesota Associated School Boards (Minnesota Educational Association)
Nebraska: Board of Education Section (Nebraska State Teachers' Association)
Ohio: School Board Association
Pennsylvania: State Association of School Directors; also State Association of School Board Secretaries
South Dakota: Associated School Boards Section
Tennessee: Tennessee Public School Officers' Association
Virginia: School Trustees' Association of Virginia
Utah: Section of Department of Superintendence
Washington: Section Washington Educational Association

The history of these organizations shows that they have been short-lived, that they have been animated by no great, common, all-pervading purpose, and that their efforts have been directed along the lines of details of school administration. This Committee does not minimize in the least the good that has been done by these organizations, nor does it fail to recognize them as the beginnings of a movement that may have great possibilities. But there can be no question of the seriousness of the crisis facing the public-education system of the country, even the imminence of revolution in its general aims and objectives, and its relations to a permanent victory for the democracy of this great standard-making nationality of ours. This crisis, this revolution, is even now upon us, and this Committee believes that an intelligent lay leadership of public opinion can be a potent factor in reconstructing the public-school system of the country to meet the great needs that are every day more and more apparent to the professional forces engaged in education.

An organization of boards of education upon a national basis with such an end in view, animated by such a vision of usefulness and of service, and instituted as a cooperative parallel with the reorganized National Education Association—as proposed by the Committee on Organization—could be of immeasurable service to the nation and to civilization.

It is the function of this Committee to analyze the problem and to suggest a course of action thru a constructive program. The problem is suggested by the following questions, which are submitted to this department for consideration and action:

1. Do boards of education generally understand the great objectives of education in the democracy?

NOTE.—This Committee believes that as a whole they do not, and that there is as a whole little public recognition of the responsibility of the school system as the chief social agency in a democracy.

2. Do members of boards of education generally understand their responsibility for leadership of the people of their communities in sound thinking upon the vital problems of education and its relation to the conservation and development of a democratic civilization?

NOTE.—The Committee is of the opinion that they do not. There may be many noteworthy and outstanding exceptions, but in general boards of education are concerned with following what they believe to be public sentiment rather than with creating and leading it.

3. Do members of boards of education understand that their chief function is legislative rather than executive and administrative, and that their greatest service is to be performed thru their own leadership of the public in sound, educational policies, while intrusting the details of administration to expert employes?

NOTE.—They do not. Too often boards of education insist upon supervising details of administration, and organize their committees for that purpose. Too often the committee organization of boards of education conduces very definitely to the development of a political attitude and to the use of patronage for personal reasons as well as to the participation in the details of administration by individual members. The usual committees are: (*a*) finance and claims, (*b*) teachers, (*c*) salaries, (*d*) textbooks, (*e*) supplies.

The committee organization of boards of education should be upon broad policy-making basis rather than along lines of administrative detail. Such committees as the following should have a prominent place in such organization of the boards of education in all large communities: (*a*) new-activities committee, (*b*) building-program committee, (*c*) Americanization committee, (*d*) junior high school committee, (*e*) vocational-education committee, (*f*) neighborhood centers and wider use of school-plant committee, (*g*) budget making and finance committee.

Upon these subjects there is great need for intelligent leadership of public opinion. Markt changes developing in the present school system in curriculum making, in methods of instruction, and in type of organization should be fostered by an intelligently educated public sentiment rather than by irresponsible and erratic propagandists for sordid political purposes.

4. Is it safe from the standpoint of the present critical situation and the new demands upon the system of public education to leave the problem of stimulating boards of education to take a professional attitude entirely to employes whose personal interest is in every case involved?

NOTE.—The Committee believes that it is not, for the following reasons: First, the temptation of the superintendent to safeguard personal interest and to promote personal ends by playing politics in a situation created by a political atmosphere and a political-

minded board is too great to guarantee that he will raise the thinking of his board of education to a higher level; secondly, the political-minded board of education cannot be thus educated to an attitude of professional mindedness because it measures the superintendent by its own yardstick and insists in seeing in every policy a motive as personal and political as those to which it has always been accustomed.

5. Is it desirable and vital that there be establisht and maintained some general policy of disseminating directly to the boards of education information upon the great movements in education in order to keep these leaders of public-education policy conversant with current progress?

NOTE.—A publication which could interpret the great questions of policy in modern education to boards of education in non-technical terms and in a form to be presented to the public would be of great value. Such a publication should be a part of the series of the National Education Association's *Bulletins*, and it should localize sufficiently to attract members of the boards of education upon all subjects. Where sectional problems arise these should be discust from the viewpoint of the sections most interested, and in the light of the great objectives to be attained by the public schools.

The problem of developing boards of education as leaders of public sentiment is much more important than to continue to surfeit the professional men of the country with information which most of them already possess in a large measure.

6. Is it possible to find principles of general interest upon which to unite the boards of education in a nation-wide organization?

NOTE.—This Committee believes that if such organization is brought about the stimulus must come from the national organizations of school people, but that such organizations as may be developt for boards of education should arise spontaneously and upon their initiative.

This Committee therefore recommends the adoption of the following plan of action:

1. The National Education Association *Bulletins* should be circulated to all members of boards of education in communities where these *Bulletins* are sent to superintendents of schools and other school officers.

2. If the plan of reorganization is adopted, the circulation of this *Bulletin* should be extended to include all members of the boards of education in the United States.

3. Sections for the discussion of problems from the viewpoint of the policy-making and legislative functions of boards of education should be added to the publications of the National Education Association. These discussions should treat of educational problems in the large, and should be coucht in such terms that they may constitute ready information in developing a wholesome public sentiment on school matters.

4. The reorganized National Education Association should invite cooperation of boards of education. A committee for the purpose of developing the machinery of cooperation should be permanently a part of the working organization of the National Education Association. The duty of such a committee should be to direct the policy of disseminating the information to the members of the boards of education and to stimulate the present organizations of boards of education to the end that they may become cooperative agents with the organized forces of education thruout the country.

5. The Committee recommends that an appropriation of one hundred dollars in addition to the appropriation made for the past year be given this Committee to carry on its work.

FRED M. HUNTER, *Chairman*
NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER
WM. C. BRUCE
JOSEPHINE CORLISS PRESTON
J. A. C. CHANDLER
H. C. JOHNSON
Z. C. THORNBURG
WM. McT. VANCE

A MESSAGE FROM FRANCE

JOHN HUSTON FINLEY, PRESIDENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK, ALBANY, N.Y.

There are two armies for the defense of our civilization. One is the Army of Present Defense; the other is the Army of Future Defense.

We have for months that have run into years watcht the former, marveling at its valors, sympathizing with its losses. We are now mobilizing and training our own forces to join in that defense on the crucial line which civilization must hold.

But on this side of that line is the other army, pictured by M. Viviani, former Minister of Public Instruction in France, when he said, "Unless the military authorities forbid, the schools must everywhere be kept open. Thus it may be said that our 'scholastic front' follows everywhere the very line of the trenches, being never more than ten kilometers distant, often less than two."

From the military front we have daily report. Hundreds of correspondents watch its every movement. The whole world, whatever its occupation, turns every morning to see what is happening there. But of the vast other army, in France alone twice or three times the first army in size, there are but meager reports. It is only when its teachers and pupils are mobilized into the first that we are likely to hear of them, either fighting in the trenches or helping in some specific way to give material aid or spirit to those who are exposing their lives to make the world a safe place for free human beings to live in.

It was this second army, this "scholastic front," representing a portion of our conscript Army of Future Defense—tens of thousands of teachers and millions of children—that I went to France to see, in order that we might have some advice of those under whose tuitions the immortal valors of the first army have been nourisht.

Of the military front I shall not speak, for hundreds of Americans, permitted a visit to that trench strip (which I have called "'Everyman's Land"

and which I hope is to give foundation for many international institutions of the new world-democracy) have seen more than I of its heroisms and horrors, tho I traveled the length of it from where it touches the English line, near St. Quentin (whose spireless cathedral I could see), to St. Dié under the German guns, not more than a half-dozen miles from the "blue line of the Vosges," which marks the border between France and its lost Alsace—St. Dié, to which I made a pilgrimage (behind camouflage for many miles of the way) because it was there that the name "America" is said first to have been put on the printed page.

Tens, and I think hundreds, of thousands of men of that Army of Present Defense I saw in ceaseless stream of blue flowing to and from the front under skies stained by the enemy's menace and over fields planted with danger, or dotted with graves, but there is nothing to say of them that the world does not and will not know as long as history tells her story. My one envy in life is of those who are permitted to take their places in that line.

I must quote in passing from it to the other front the letter of a girl in one of the *lycées* that I visited—the *lycée* where General Gallieni had his quarters for a time early in the war—a letter which in one paragraph graphically depicts the distance by which the millions on either side of that narrow, trencht strip are separated, and in the second intimates the closeness of the sympathy between France and America:

LYCÉE VICTOR DURUY

It was only a little river, almost a brook; it was called the Yser. One could talk from one side to the other without raising one's voice, and the birds could fly over it with one sweep of their wings. And on the two banks there were millions of men, the one turned toward the other, eye to eye. But the distance which separated them was greater than that of the stars in the sky; it was the distance which separates right from injustice.

The ocean is so vast that the sea gulls do not dare to cross it. During seven days and seven nights the great steamships of America, going at full speed, drive thru the deep waters, before the lighthouses of France come into view; but from one side to the other hearts are touching.

ODETTE GASTINEL
Classe: 3me Année Secondaire

But the other army, whose first lines are within sound and range of the guns! One covets the eloquence of a Viviani (such as that with which I heard him speak in the French Senate of his journey to America) to tell of its no less heroic endurances and achievements and of its vital importance to the future of France which the present valors of her people are revealing to the world and defending against destruction.

When one hears that more than four thousand teachers of those in France (thirty thousand men were called from the elementary schools alone at the beginning of the war, and of course many thousands later) who have been called from the Army of Future Defense to the Army of Present Defense have been cited for military valor, one can believe that the same heroic spirit pervades the entire teaching body of France, and that the

remark of the Rector of the University of Nancy was warranted. I had been looking at the broken walls of an elementary school, wreckt by a shell which fell upon it in the midst of a morning's session. The master of the school, when the shells began to fall near the school building, timed the interval between the first shells, got his children in line for marching, and then the moment a third or fourth shell fell, marcht them to a building seventy paces away that had a cellar with stout walls. The next shell penetrated the school building and would doubtless have killed or maimed all the children had they remained. I said to the Rector that this teacher should have been given the *Croix de Guerre*. "No," said the Rector, "No, any teacher in France would have done this"—which recalls a sentence from the first report of the present Director of Elementary Education after the beginning of the war, to the effect that the teachers having been accustomed before the war to think continuously of the good of their pupils were kept even in the trenches from egotism and selfishness.

And I find better figure than my own in the tribute of this gentle Director, whom I found in his office in the Rue de Grenelle, but in daily touch with this "scholastic front":

> We admire, not without reason, the serenity of the farmer who, two steps from the battle line, is sowing for the future his grain on the bloody furrows. [And many such farmers or farmers' wives I saw on those furrows, while the little puffs of smoke showed that the enemy was in their skies.] Let us admire none the less these teachers who, all along the line of fire, hold their classes within the sound of the cannon; they also are sowing for the future.

Again and again in my journey there came to me the saying of Voltaire: "'The spirit of France is the candle of Europe." Voltaire saw it glowing in peasants' huts, and he would see it now in the trenches were he in France today; but I saw its flame too in the dim-cloistered places of learning, in the halls of the *lycées*, and even in little and meagerly furnisht rooms of the schools of France, which except for its light would have seemed sad and somber places. And one could but recall too (one must add in this connection) what Voltaire said further in speaking of this candle of Europe, as if in divination of what has come to pass. "You English," he said, "(nor all others) can blow it out. . . . . And you English will be its screen against the blowing out, tho in spasms of stupidity you flaunt the extinguisher."

The winds, savage in temper and fury beyond any that have ever blown over the earth, have been driving across France from the northeast, winds that have razed villages to dust, that have felled trees by thousands in the fields, that have poisoned waters with their breath, that have shown no respect for schools or hospitals or churches, that have not only denuded the fertile earth in their path, but torn it so that it will not for years, if ever, be able to support life. But despite all this the spirit of France, the candle of Europe, is unquencht.

France has restricted the use of food, fuel, and light; she has discouraged travel except for reasons of necessity; she has mobilized every able-bodied man for present defense; but she has not for one moment forgotten her future defense. She has even opened schools in caves and occasionally provided teachers and pupils with gas masks; she has put women by thousands in the places of men teachers called to the front; she has received back into service many men with marks of honor upon their breasts, who have been incapacitated by wounds, to teach again in the schools they had left. Indeed I have seen many hundreds of children from the occupied territory being taught in *casernes* (barracks) by their women teachers who had fled with them. But she has not except under compulsion of cannon and bombs taken from any child that heritage in which alone is the prophecy of an enduring nation.

The able-bodied men of France are fighting in the first army to preserve the candle that holds the flame, but the teachers are fighting as valiantly in the other to make the candle worth the grim game—this candle of Europe which has become the candle of civilization.

The advice which France, out of her physical anguish but unabated aspiration of spirit, sends to us from her "scholastic front" is this:

> Do not let the needs of the hour, however demanding, or its burdens however heavy, or its perils however threatening, or its sorrows however heart-breaking, make you unmindful of the defense of tomorrow, of those disciplines thru which the individual may have freedom, thru which an efficient democracy is possible, thru which the institutions of civilization can be perpetuated and strengthened. Conserve, endure taxation and privation, suffer and sacrifice, to assure to those whom you have brought into the world that it shall be, not only a safe, but also a happy, place for them.

Not that France has put this advice into words. She would consider that presuming. It is the advice of her doing that I have attempted to translate.

TOPIC: NATIONAL RESPONSIBILITY FOR EDUCATION OF THE COLORED PEOPLE

A. THE STATUS OF NEGRO EDUCATION

KELLY MILLER, DEAN OF HOWARD UNIVERSITY, WASHINGTON, D.C.

The Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution made the Negro a citizen of the United States. By fiat of law the status of the chattel was suddenly transformed into that of the citizen. The national government was wholly responsible for the creation of Negro citizenship, a responsibility which involved the obligation to prepare him for his new function in the government. But his education was left to the afflicted states, which had recently been disrupted and disorganized by the ruinous ravages of war. Consequently, for the most part the freedman was left to shift for himself in his upward struggle from ignorance to enlightenment. It was hoped

that his enfranchisement might enable him to exert the requisite influence on the policy of the several states, leading to the establishment of adequate educational provision. Amidst all the imperfections and misdeeds of reconstruction, actual or alleged, there stands out in bold relief one clear redeeming feature. Actuated by the purpose of qualifying the Negro for proper exercise of his citizenship function, the reconstruction governments establisht the public-school system in the several Southern States.

But actual experience soon demonstrated what prudent prevision should have foreseen, namely, that the recently impoverisht and distracted Southern States were not, of themselves, able to maintain adequate school systems for the efficient education of both races. Their heroic effort must be supplemented by national provision, or else the South for many generations must lag behind other sections of the nation, and the efficiency of the nation as a whole will be seriously impaired.

We are likely to be misled by statistics of illiteracy showing the remarkable rapidity with which the Negro is acquiring the use of letters. Beginning practically at the zero point of literacy, at the time of his emancipation, the rate of literacy had arisen to 70.6 per cent in 1910. The rapidity with which the Negro race has progrest in literacy has been considered the most marvelous attainment of the past century. In the period of fifty years a considerable majority of its members has learned the use of letters. This is a much larger percentage than is shown by many of the historic races of the Old World.

Altho 70 per cent of the Negro race can read and write, comparatively a small fraction of that number actually make an efficient use of their attainments. In the states which require a literacy test for the exercise of franchise the great majority of Negroes are excluded because of their inability to meet this simple test, albeit the statistics of such states show a high average of Negro literacy. Statistics of illiteracy are misleading because the individual pride which indisposes him to have his ignorance acknowledged and recorded often leads the Negro to render misleading answer to the query of the enumerator.

At Camp Dodge, where there were 3600 Negro conscripts from Alabama, no one of whom, under the terms of conscription was over thirty-one year of age, the Young Men's Christian Association found that over 50 per cent of them were unable to read or write, notwithstanding the fact that the rate of Negro illiteracy in Alabama, according to the federal statistics is only 40.1 per cent. There is one conspicuous outstanding fact, that the great majority of the Negro race are not able to make use of literary knowledge to improve their efficiency, or measure up to the standard of an enlightened citizenship.

When we consider the woeful inadequacy of provision made for Negro education there is left no room to marvel because of this alarming result. According to reports just issued by the Bureau of Education, the state of

Alabama expends $1.78 per capita for each Negro child, the state of Georgia $1.76, and Louisiana $1.31. These states expend from five to six times this amount per capita for the schooling of white children. It is conceded that even the provision for the education of the white children of the South is scarcely more than one-third of that for the education of a child in the North and West. If it requires $25 per capita to prepare for the duties of citizenship in the North, a white child whose powers are reinforced by racial and social heredity, by what law of logic or common sense can it be expected that $1.31 will prepare a Negro child in Louisiana, who misses such reinforcement, for the exercise of like functions?

Without national aid to Negro education the Southern States must continue for generations under the heavy handicap of a comparatively ignorant and ill-equipt citizenship.

It is a fatal mistake to suppose that the efficient education of the Negro can be conducted on a cheaper scale than that of the whites. The fact that his home environment and his general grade of life are lower, makes adequate educational facilities all the more expensive.

Philanthropy, to a commendable degree, has served to supplement the deficiencies of the Southern States for Negro education. But neither the individual state nor the United States has the moral right to depend upon voluntary philanthropy to prepare its citizens for the responsible duties and obligations of citizenship. At best, philanthropy is only a temporary and inadequate makeshift. As high as philanthropic contribution seems to be in the aggregate, it amounts to little more than one dose of medicine in the hospital, when compared to the magnitude of the task to which it is applied.

It was unfair to the Southern States to require them, unaided, to prepare the Negro for duties of citizenship at the time of his enfranchisement. The nation as a whole was responsible for the condition of the Negro. The fact that slavery became a localized institution was not due to the inherent deviltry of the South nor to the innate goodness of the North. Slavery was a national institution and became localized under the operation of climatic and economic law. It is equally unfair today to require the South to bear the heavy burden alone. The Negro problem is the nation's problem; the remedy should be as comprehensive as the need.

So far I have dealt with the demands for federal assistance to primary and elementary education, which imparts to each citizen a more or less well-understood minimum of necessary knowledge and standard of efficiency. But there is a higher sense in which the nation is obligated to the cause of Negro education. At the time of his emancipation the Negro was left wholly without wise guidance and direction. The sudden severance of the personal relation which had existed complacently under the régime of slavery left the Negro dependent upon his own internal resources for the leadership of his higher and better life. The discipline of slavery had illy

fitted him for this function. It had imparted to him the process without the principle, the knack without the knowledge, the rule without the reason, the formula without the philosophy. If the blind lead the blind they will both fall into the ditch. For want of vision people perish. The professional class constitutes the higher light of the race, and if that light within this race be darkness, how great is that darkness.

The federal government should make some provision for those who are to stand in the high places of intellectual and moral authority. In the Western States, where philanthropical millionaires are scarce and where the average citizen is not able to support the system of education on the higher level, the state undertakes the task of maintaining higher institutions of learning for the leaders in the various walks of life. The Negro is unable at present to maintain such institutions for his own race; he is dependent upon a remote and vicarious philanthropy.

Already thru land-grant and other federal funds, the government, in cooperation with the several states, is supporting agricultural and mechanical colleges for white youth. Some provision is also made for the Negroes in the states where there is scholastic separation of the races. But these agricultural and mechanical colleges are essentially schools of secondary grade and cannot be maintained on a high level of collegiate basis. It is easy for the federal government to extend the application by establishing and maintaining at least one institution of technical character and collegiate grade which might serve as a finishing school for the work done in the several states. The Negro needs to be rooted and grounded in the principles of knowledge on the highest collegiate basis. The federal government has already acknowledged this responsibility in the moderate support which it gives to Howard University as the national institution of the Negro race. This acknowledgment of a national responsibility, let us hope, augurs early ample provision for the education of a race in its upward struggle to the stature of American citizenship.

B. THE NATION'S RESPONSIBILITY TO THE SOUTH FOR NEGRO EDUCATION

W. T. B. WILLIAMS, FIELD AGENT FOR THE JEANES FUND AND THE SLATER FUND, HAMPTON INSTITUTE, HAMPTON, VA.

Now that we are engaged in positively championing the cause of democracy for the world it may not be amiss for us to take a look into our own household. Our government has its only secure basis in the education of its citizens. And our remarkable prosperity has long been attributed to the high average intelligence and the resulting efficiency of our workers. The nation then should see to it that such arch enemies of democracy and

national efficiency as ignorance and incompetence are driven, as far as possible, from our midst. "One illiterate citizen is a menace, and his participation in our government is fraught with grave consequences." It should be borne in mind too that mere disfranchisement does not remove the peril of such a citizen. He remains to harm and burden the state in many fundamental ways.

Any section of the country that fails to prepare its citizens adequately for effective living thereby lessens the strength of the nation. It is the part of wisdom for the nation to fortify itself at that point. In the vital matters of education and training for industrial efficiency the South lags behind other sections of the country and particularly so in the case of the colored people. The failure is of such magnitude in the latter case as to warrant national concern.

About 3,000,000, or 40.4 per cent, of all persons engaged in agricultural pursuits in the southern states are Negroes. As farmers, renting and owning land, they cultivate 41,500,000 acres. As farm laborers they undoubtedly cultivate a much larger area. Tho the United States census shows a decrease in illiteracy, there are still about 2,225,000 Negro illiterates in the South, or over 33 per cent of the Negro population ten years of age and over. Certainly it is of national importance that cultivators of 41,500,000 acres of land in the favored section of the country should be properly educated and trained for their serviceable labors. The demands that the nation is making upon the South for food emphasize the potential value of these 3,000,000 agricultural workers. The nation is also calling upon the South for her quota of soldiers. The figures show that no one is crowding the Negro out of his opportunity to supply his full share. It is giving the nation no little concern, however, that the first draft for the present war brought in about forty thousand illiterate men, most of whom, in all probability, came from the South.

The South lacks the means to give her children proper education. This works a special hardship upon the colored children, the less favored portion of the population. No one pretends that the Negro gets an equal share of even the slender elementary-school fund. The South is poor and her property would yield a relatively small income even if it were properly assest for taxation, which admittedly it is not. The South is not only not so wealthy as other sections of the country, but owing to the lack of education and training among the masses of her citizens she has apparently less power to create wealth. Not only are the great manufacturing industries largely wanting, but in her special field of agriculture the South also suffers in comparison. The casual visitor is at once struck with the poor methods of farming, the inadequate equipment, and the general run-down conditions.

But despite such handicaps the expenditures for schools for each $100 of wealth in the southern states compare favorably with those of other sections of the country, as Table I will show.

The differences in the amounts of money available for the education of each child in the two groups of states not only show that the South cannot give the amount of education offered in the other sections, but raise the question as to whether the South can give a safe amount of education with the means at her disposal. If the money were divided impartially among

TABLE I

AMOUNT EXPENDED FOR SCHOOLS FOR EACH $100 OF WEALTH*

Alabama	$0.23	Connecticut	$0.31
Arkansas	0.29	Pennsylvania	0.27
Florida	0.33	New York	0.29
Georgia	0.29	Massachusetts	0.34
Louisiana	0.31	Indiana	0.39
Mississippi	0.31	Illinois	0.29
North Carolina	0.28	Wisconsin	0.31
South Carolina	0.27	Iowa	0.25
Tennessee	0.33	Kansas	0.36
Virginia	0.28	California	0.33

**A Comparative Study of Public School Systems in Forty-eight States.* Russell Sage Foundation, 1912, p. 16.

TOTAL AMOUNTS EXPENDED PER CHILD*

Alabama	$4	Connecticut	$22
Arkansas	6	Pennsylvania	16
Florida	8	New York	25
Georgia	4	Massachusetts	34
Louisiana	7	Indiana	19
Mississippi	4	Illinois	23
North Carolina	4	Wisconsin	15
South Carolina	3	Iowa	20
Tennessee	6	Kansas	16
Virginia	6	California	27

**A Comparative Study of Public School Systems in Forty-eight States.* Russell Sage Foundation, 1912, p. 9.

the white and colored children it seems quite clear that no such training as our times require could possibly be given. All the more is it impossible to do anything but keep up appearances with the much smaller amounts that fall to the colored children in the division that is made. The division is now made as shown in Table II.

Very little change may be expected soon from within the South. A white lawyer writing recently in the *Atlanta Constitution* says that the questionnaire required under the military draft "will carry intelligence to Washington that is alarming and a disgrace to the state." The *Constitution* says: "The questionnaire will show that a tremendous percentage of the young men of Georgia, and especially those of the rural sections, are woe-

fully illiterate; that they have been and are being denied opportunities—to say nothing of incentives—for the acquiring of education, and that the state is deplorably remiss in failing to provide them with proper and adequate educational facilities." If this is the condition of the young men in general in Georgia it is not difficult to imagine the state of the Negro.

TABLE II

TEACHERS' SALARIES PER CHILD SIX TO FOURTEEN YEARS OF AGE*

State	White	Negro	State	White	Negro
Alabama	$9.41	$1.78	North Carolina	$5.27	$2.02
Arkansas	12.95	4.59	South Carolina	10.00	1.44
Florida	11.50	2.64	Tennessee	8.27	4.83
Georgia	9.58	1.76	Texas	10.08	5.74
Louisiana	13.73	1.31	Virginia	9.64	2.74
Mississippi	10.50	2.26			

* *Negro Education*, U.S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1916, No. 39. Vol. II, *passim*.

The South needs to be led to a deeper appreciation of the value of education for all the people and especially to recognize the importance to itself as well as to the nation of Negro education. In most cases where there is any activity out of the ordinary in Negro education in the South today it can usually be traced to some influence of the Jeanes Fund, the Slater Fund, the Rosenwald Fund, the General Education Board, or to private schools like Hampton Institute, Tuskegee Institute, and Spelman Seminary, or to the local colored people.

All of these agencies have clearly demonstrated the helpfulness of outside aid in Negro education in the South. The South has shown no inclination to do less on account of such aid. On the contrary, it is mainly in cooperation with these agencies that it has come to do more than usual for colored schools. These funds are now inadequate to meet the demands the South is making upon them for cooperation in Negro education. Only the national government is equal to that. Private means have shown an effective and acceptable way of relieving the South of its main burden of ignorance and weakness. The nation owes it to the South to help in carrying forward this work.

The nation is already giving aid to certain phases of education in the South. It has helpt to support agricultural and mechanical colleges here as elsewhere. And by the means provided by the Smith-Lever bill and the Smith-Hughes bill it has gone a long step farther. It is now doing educational work in agriculture directly with the farmers and is giving agricultural and mechanical training to boys and girls in the public schools. The county training schools already mentioned are to be used for the latter work among colored youth. It is difficult to see why the national government should not help to meet an equally pressing need in general education for Negroes

in the same section. Such aid would doubtless meet with the same response given to private funds. If the national aid were conditioned upon increast public appropriations for colored schools it would prove stimulating and helpful, as has been true with the private funds and in the case of the government money in agricultural training. It is remarkable what efforts a community will make in order to get assistance from outside. The nation might with advantage set a definite date for withdrawing aid altogether, after allowing sufficient time for development and permanent growth. The Slater Fund has done this with success in a number of cases. At Richmond, Va., for instance, it finanst the industrial work in the colored high school. This resulted in similar work in the new white high school. In Charleston, S.C., the Fund helpt the city establish an industrial school for colored youth. Neither work would have been done but for this outside aid. Both have gone steadily forward since the aid has been withdrawn.

The South needs the help and stimulation which outside aid and cooperation in its consequent direction give. National means alone are adequate to this task. The nation has the opportunity to render the South a peculiarly helpful service in making her citizens more intelligent and efficient and so more valuable both to the South and to the nation. I think its responsibility is clear.

C. THE NATION'S RESPONSIBILITY TO ITSELF FOR NEGRO EDUCATION AND ITS CONSTITUTIONAL POWER TO RENDER AID THERETO

ISAAC FISHER, UNIVERSITY EDITOR, FISK UNIVERSITY, NASHVILLE, TENN.

The brief herewith presented is not for the Negro alone, but for the American Commonwealth.

Waiving all questions of equity to the Negro, the American government has a direct and immediate responsibility to all the people of the United States for the education of the American Negro. To show that the nation is responsible to itself for the education of her colored people and that it can give aid in this direction, three propositions must be supported and proved: (I) that there is substantial relation between Negro education and the purposes for which the Union was formed; (II) that this relation creates a moral responsibility on the part of the government to all of the people, to promote Negro education; and (III) that there is ample constitutional power in Congress to give aid to Negro education.

I. *There is substantial relation between Negro education and the purposes for which the Union was formed.*—The purposes in the hearts of the men who founded this nation were, as they themselves wrote them into the Constitu-

tion, (1) to form a more perfect union, (2) to establish justice, (3) to insure domestic tranquillity, (4) to provide for the common defense, (5) to promote the general welfare, and (6) to secure the blessings of liberty to themselves and their posterity. Is there substantial relation between Negro education or lack of it and the general welfare as embraced under these topics? The relation is substantial and direct.

The establishment of justice: Since the beginning of the present world-war the United States has called upon her citizens to offer their money, their comfort, their happiness, and their lives in defense of their government. No discrimination in their favor has been askt by the Negroes. None would have been granted by the government, had it been askt.

Whether it is so intended or not, the present inequality of opportunity and equality of duties imposed upon the Negro both by state and federal governments are injustices which in time will be set up as precedents to breed and justify further injustice to other race or social groups thruout the nation. The education of the Negro, therefore, is urged, not simply for his good, but because it will be a step toward the establishment of justice for all the people by the doing of justice to one of the weaker groups of the people.

The insuring of domestic tranquillity: The census reports of Negro criminality for the years 1870, 1880, 1890, and 1904 bear testimony that our government has taken "judicial notice" of the fact that there is too much crime in the race. As to the remedy for this evil, the answer by a southern judge, Gilbert T. Stephenson, of Winston-Salem, N.C., is unequivocal, for he says: "All the available statistics and the unanimous opinion of men in position to know the facts would seem to prove that education—elementary or advanst, industrial or literary—diminishes crime among Negroes."[1]

Providing for the common defense: Whether or not the whole people have any interest in the future of the American Negro, the whole people are concerned to know whether always in time of stress and storm a race group now numbering practically twelve million will be whole-heartedly for our government or against it. To help educate the Negro will help provide for the common defense by increasing the love of those who must bear arms for the nation.

Promoting for the general welfare: In addition to all that has gone before it must be said that all the fruits of ignorance, i.e., crime, pauperism, high death-rate, low standard of living, etc., affect the general welfare of all the people. The steady and unexpected migration of Negroes from the South to all parts of the country suddenly reminded the nation that in our scrupulous care to preserve the rights of the individual states we had neglected to provide for that general welfare of all the people which is

[1] *Review of Reviews*, LV (1917), 318.

intrusted by the Constitution, not to the states, but to the general government.

Our logic had made no allowance for the fact that while under our system of government one state has the perfect right to spend $10.00 for the education of a white child and but $1.44 for that of a Negro child she and her sister-states have no right to permit Negroes thru ignorance to have so low a standard of living that when they began moving into northern and eastern states labor all over the country should fear that the coming of 350,000 and possibly more Negroes would be a menace to the northern workingman with his generally higher standard of living; and that labor would express that fear in the awful terms of the massacres of East St. Louis.

It was rendered forever impossible by the inhibitions of the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States, forbidding slavery in the Union, for one state to prevent the migration of Negroes to another state; and whether they will or not all the states of the American Union have a very special interest in the education of every Negro in the country.

Securing the blessings of liberty: The nation must grant full measure of liberty, compatible with safety, to all of her citizens or she must deteriorate. Full liberty to the Negro to prepare himself for citizenship thru education is a principle which must be applied if the nation is not to adopt a counter-principle of restraint upon that race; and every arbitrary restraint of liberty not equally imposed on all the citizens similarly required to bear the burdens of citizenship leads to ultimate tyranny and to a loss of national liberty.

II. *The relation subsisting between Negro education and the purposes for which the Union was formed create a moral responsibility in the government to promote Negro education.*—The several ends for which the nation was founded, embracing the general welfare of all the people of the Union, was intrusted in terms to the care of the federal government. The moral obligation of the Union to protect all of its people arises from this fact. If, as has been shown, the promotion of Negro education is a factor in the promotion of the general welfare the nation is under moral obligation to advance the cause of Negro education. The nation's ethical obligation to advance the cause of Negro education being conceded, nothing remains but to affirm that—

III. *There is full constitutional power in Congress to give aid to Negro education.*

There are three grants of power to Congress under which federal aid may be given to Negro education, i.e., the power (1) to regulate commerce, (2) to provide for the common defense, and (3) to provide for the general welfare.

It has already been shown that Negro illiteracy is productive of crime and a low standard of living. Without looking farther we have here the following harmful fruits of Negro illiteracy: (1) crime, immorality; (2) health menace; (3) lower relative standard of living, menacing the

public peace; and (4) poverty and dependence. And it will be admitted without argument that these bear vital relation to the public health, the public morals, the public peace, and the public safety; and that these are undisputed subjects of the police power to be regulated thereunder.

While fully conceding that any and all of the states of the Union have police power many deny that the general government has any such power; and this denial has been urged to justify the exclusion of the United States from participation in such law enforcements as have to do with subjects ordinarily legislated upon by the several states.

Under its commerce power Congress has legislated (1) to prevent the spread of disease from state to state (act of March 27, 1890), (2) to cooperate with municipalities to prevent the spread of disease (act of February 15, 1893), (3) to regulate railway sanitation, (4) to collect and collate sanitary information, (5) to investigate contagious and infectious diseases (act of March 3, 1901), and (6) to study and investigate the diseases of man (act of August 14, 1912). The power to pass quarantine laws to protect the public health has been upheld by the Supreme Court in numerous cases. From these cases it is clear that Congress may legislate to destroy conditions injurious to the public health, morals, and welfare under its power to regulate commerce. And it is not perceived that it has not the power to reduce illiteracy which is a cause of disease and its spread from state to state.

On the affirmative side it may be said that Negro education will result in national benefits. Under dangerous aspects of Negro illiteracy it will not be forgotten that the federal Bureau of Education indicated, not only that the masses of Negroes should be educated, but that "the race must have physicians with real skill and the spirit of service to lead against the unsanitary conditions that are threatening not only the colored people, but also their white neighbors."[1] Here it is shown that both elementary and higher education of Negroes will be safeguards of the public health.

On the economic side it may be said further that according to our last census there were 5,192,535 Negro bread-winners. Three millions, or 55 per cent, of these are farmers and farm laborers; and practically not more than 5 per cent of the total number of Negroes are in the skilled or professional groups. These colored people till 41,500,000 acres of land and comprise 40.4 per cent of all southern farmers in the nation, producing commodities which are of the highest value in the commerce of the United States. The lack of skill and scientific training which these workers exhibit and the lack of education of which these are the fruits point the way to the better promotion of commerce thru the better education of this great group of producers.

It has been shown (1) that Negro illiteracy—any illiteracy—is a menace to the public peace, health, morals, and safety of all the people; (2) that

[1] Bulletin No. 38 (1916), p. 55.

Congress has police power for the protection of the general welfare; (3) that Congress has employed this police power under its commercial power to protect the public peace, health, morals, and welfare of all the people in cases beyond the jurisdiction of individual states; (4) that Negro laborers are for the most part untrained; (5) that vocational education in particular and general education as a whole will give such training to these workers as will help to promote the growth of American commerce; and (6) that Congress is specifically authorized by the Constitution to adopt measures to promote the growth of such commerce.

From all of these arguments may be deduced the simple conclusion that Congress has ample power under the Constitution to give aid to Negro education in order to equalize the opportunities of education given in the several states; and in giving such aid, it need not examine the causes of the inequalities to be cured. If they spring from poverty in the states Congress must help the states for the general welfare; if from poverty of Negroes Congress may encourage them by providing educational facilities for them further to provide for the common defense; or if from race discriminations Congress is morally bound to legislate in such a way that however desirable these discriminations may be they cannot jeopardize the national defense, retard the growth of commerce, and menace the public peace, public health, public morals, and the general welfare of all the people of the Union.

DISCUSSION

James H. Dillard, president of Slater and Jeanes Boards, Charlottesville, Va.—This very important and far-reaching proposition has been much discust in past years. Many arguments pro and con have been put forth. There are differences of opinion on the subject. I confess myself to have been at different times on different sides; but for a number of years I have thought that the reasons for national aid to Negro education far outweigh all possible objections. I say this in spite of the fact that I am an ultra believer in states' rights and duties as opposed to federal rights and duties.

In facing the problem I find myself confronted with the following thoughts:

1. *Justice, both to the Negro and to the South.*—When the Negro was freed he had practically nothing to start with but the false discipline of slavery. He was not helpt as he should have been and the efforts that were made were utterly inadequate. The whole nation should have felt the obligation to afford means of education to the freedmen, for the presence of the Negro on our continent and his use as a slave were due, not to the South alone, but to the whole country. The country as a whole consented and abetted. Justice therefore demanded that when the change of status came the whole country should share the consequent obligation of education. This obligation has never been met and the demand for meeting it still calls as a matter of simple justice to the Negro. It is also a matter of justice to the South. The South, chief promoter of slavery and also chief sufferer, should not have been expected to have the whole burden of the public education of the freedmen. The beginning and the end of slavery affected, involved, and concerned the country as a whole. I would base national aid to Negro education on simple justice—justice to the Negro and justice to the South.

2. *The tremendous benefit to the Negro and to the whole country.*—There is no need of going over the old arguments. The prosperity, the safety, the health of the nation depend upon the spread of knowledge, intelligence, efficiency, and enlightened purposes among all citizens of every race and calling, and the only practical governmental way of effecting this extension of good is thru the public schools.

3. *The spending of money.*—How better can all the people's money be spent than in providing education for all the people? There may come times when it seems necessary to spend the last dollar on army and navy, but we never actually spend the last dollar in this way and the ordinary expenses go on. The necessary addition to ordinary expenses which would come on account of an amount of aid sufficient to cause very great improvement in Negro education would be relatively a small item in the country's budget.

4. *The need.*—The facts speak for themselves. While much has been done by states and counties, as the great reduction in illiteracy well shows, it is still true that in most parts of the South the terms of Negro public schools are too short and the pay and consequent fitness of the teachers too low. Longer terms and better teachers are the two outstanding needs. Mr. Williams has given in his address many statistics which deserve careful consideration. Improvement is going on, but why should it be so slow if it can be wisely hastened?

5. *The constitutionality of the proposition.*—This aspect of the case has been considered in detail in Mr. Fisher's address. I have always believed that when a good step had to be taken the way could somchow be found thru the mazes of the commas, clauses, and phrases of any constitution that ever could be written.

Now permit me to say that in spite of the five thoughts just considered, namely, the justice, the benefit, the wisdom of the expenditure, the need, and the constitutional permissibility, it seems to me that national aid should be withheld unless it could be given without two drawbacks:

1. Such aid must not diminish state or local appropriations. However there appears to be no danger of this kind. The fact is that the cooperation of the various private foundations has led invariably to larger appropriations from public funds.

2. The money given in aid must not be wasted. I believe that methods can be found whereby the proper spending of the money can be safeguarded.

I shall now venture to state in brief outline the policy and plan which I should like to see adopted:

1. Let the aid be offered in fifteen states, as follows: Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, Oklahoma, Tennessee, and Kentucky. Two other states, West Virginia and Missouri, might be added if the addition be thought advisable.

2. Let the aid be given for salary of teachers in public schools of all grades. With increase of salary the question of length of term would take care of itself.

3. Let the administration of the funds be in the hands of a committee of three consisting of the state superintendent, the state agent of Negro rural schools, and the president or principal of the leading state institution for Negroes. Eleven of the fifteen states already have state agents of Negro rural schools and the remaining four should have and probably soon will have such an official. All of the states except two have one outstanding Negro institution supported by the state. In North Carolina with three and Alabama with two the selection of the member of the committee might be left to the state superintendent.

4. Let the amount be for fifteen years one-third, for ten years one-fourth, and for five years one-fifth of the amount expended each preceding year for all purposes of Negro education from public funds in each county and city and for each state institution of higher grade.

In order to give a general idea of the amount needed to carry out this plan I have taken the figures available. Not all are of the same year and so the amount makes no pretense of absolute present accuracy. According to such figures as I have the amount spent in a year in counties and cities for Negro public schools in the fifteen states was in round numbers $5,125,000. The amount spent for the state schools was $275,000. These together made $5,400,000, so that under these figures the amount of national aid would be $1,800,000. Suppose it were two millions, or two and a half millions, or even three millions a year for fifteen years and then a diminishing amount; this seems a small sum for the whole nation to pay in performing a high duty and achieving a widespread benefit. For tho the amount is not large when distributed over fifteen states it would do much in each state to further of itself the needed improvement, and I confidently believe that the aid given would tend to increase the state and county appropriations.

STANDARDIZATION OF SCHOOLHOUSE PLANNING AND CONSTRUCTION

FRANK IRVING COOPER, ARCHITECT, BOSTON, MASS.

All this week we have listened with intense interest to the speeches which have been made to us, and one reason for our interest has been that they all had some intimate connection with that one enormous subject which engrosses us all, "The War." It has thrown a powerful searchlight upon every kind of activity and we are looking at affairs from a new point of view.

According to reputable authorities we have been the world's spendthrift, and we must now try to learn where waste may be curtailed in every possible way, not only in the use of food, but in the use of materials, and under the latter heading in the use of building-material. I do not mean that we must stop using building-materials, but I do mean that we must be sure that the materials are being put to the best use in the most economical way. In the development of our present complicated building with laboratories, gymnasium, libraries, executive departments, etc., there has crept in an element of waste space and inefficient layout which almost always results in a waste of public money, and it is this waste which we hope in some way to abolish.

We have nothing that could be called standards of schoolhouse building. It is true that our state regulation has had a great growth during the past five years as shown in comparative charts for 1910 and 1915.

Chart I, of 1910, shows that but 23 states had laws or regulations dealing with school buildings. These laws and regulations dealt with 26 phases of the buildings. The agitation during the five years following the publishing of this chart resulted in the passing of regulations in 10 additional states as well as the reviewing of the laws in many of the states having laws in 1910.

A redrafting of the chart in 1915, Chart II, showed that 33 states had regulations dealing with 63 phases of the building. We are now at work on a revision of this chart to show the amount of regulations as it stood in 1917.

If there were more uniformity in these laws they would be more valuable. As it is there is such a great variation that a building in one state would often be condemned if it were moved half a mile across the border into another state.

To show how vitally this affects our pocketbooks, states having similar regulations, as Vermont, New Jersey, and Minnesota, require 50 per cent more area in classrooms per pupil than some of the other states and their taxpayers must pay $1.50 for every dollar that it costs their neighbors. This is simply one instance out of many, but it is obvious (without considering which is right) that there should be one best standard and that all states would be benefited by adopting it.

To assist in determining what is the best practice in school buildings is the object of our work. Our Committee has had no standards of planning to go by. But what we did have was an enormous number and variety of

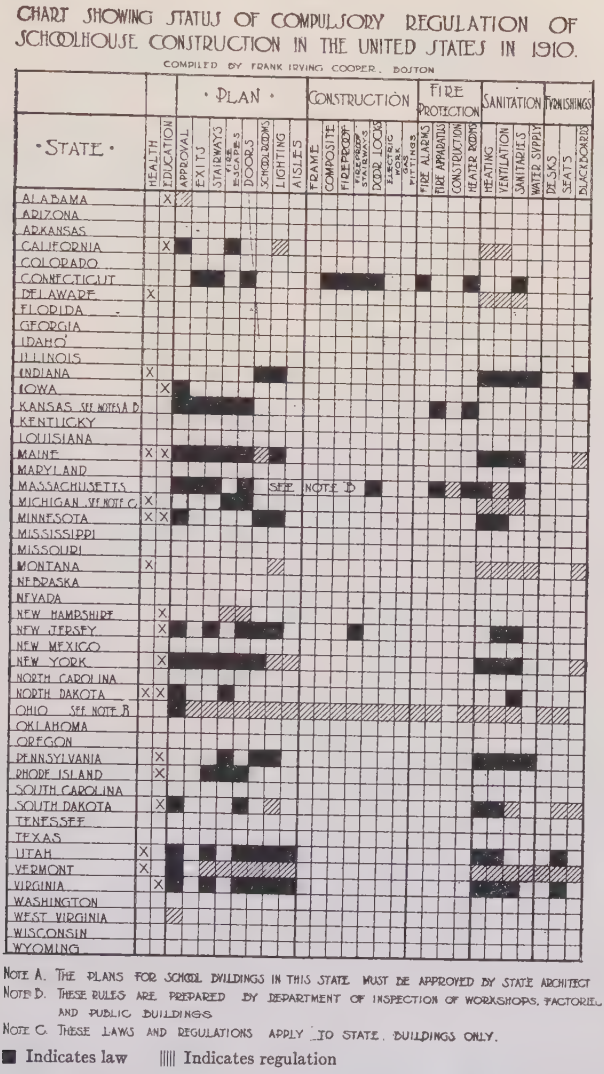
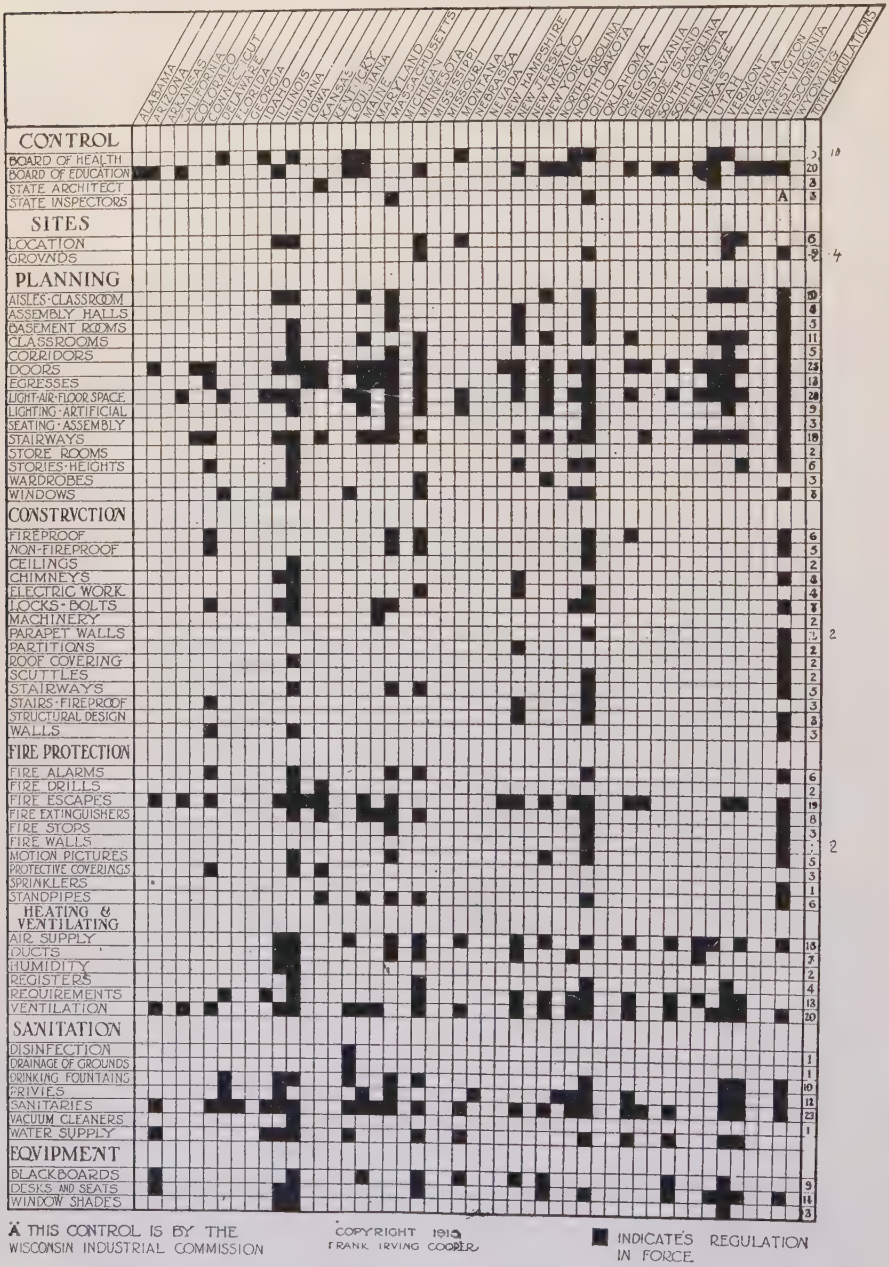


CHART I

school buildings now in active use which were ready for investigation with a view to determining what was most desirable in each and what was the best practice in division of space. I should premise any discussion of our school-building tabulation with the statement that we have not tabulated a

CHART SHOWING STATUS OF REGULATION OF SCHOOLHOUSE CONSTRUCTION IN THE UNITED STATES IN THE YEAR 1915

COMPILED BY FRANK IRVING COOPER, ARCHITECT, BOSTON.



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■ INDICATES REGULATION IN FORCE

CHART II

sufficient number of school buildings to warrant us in advancing final conclusions.

We have received plans of buildings from architects and superintendents in cities and towns of eighteen widely separated states. Some of these plans have been selected because the building was of a representative type, some because the architect was a leader in school planning, and some because they were highly recommended by school authorities.

The buildings were classed according to the school activity into six types, three under grade schools and three under high schools:

1. Grade schools of *one story* with auditorium, but having no basement and no gymnasium.
2. Grade schools of *two stories* with auditorium, but having no basement and no gymnasium.
3. Grade schools of *two stories* with basement, but having no auditorium and no gymnasium.
4. Junior high schools of *two stories* with auditorium and basement, but having no gymnasium.
5. High schools of *two stories* with auditorium, gymnasium, and basement.
6. High schools of *three stories* with auditorium, gymnasium, and basement.

Our method of tabulation has been, first, find the entire area of the building to be measured, the area of the basement and of all the floors; secondly, to measure the cross-area of each wall, flue, room, closet, corridor —that is, of every part of the building that had area. If our tabulation showed an error of one-half of 1 per cent from the total area it was gone over until the error was found.

Our next step was to decide on an arrangement of the *main* divisions of the school building. Our divisions were: walls and partitions, flues, stairs and corridors, accessories, instruction and administration.

Walls, partitions, flues, stairs, and corridors need no explanation. Accessories included unmarked spaces and spaces marked "playrooms," "storage," "closets," etc., that did not seem to have any connection with any of the main divisions. Instruction included all those areas used directly for some activity that goes to educate the pupil. The gymnasium and auditorium were included in this division. Administration included all areas connected with the government and maintenance of the school, the heating and ventilating plant, the sanitary provisions, and the wardrobes.

In preparing the tabulation of each building for study we used equal strips of cardboard one inch wide and twenty-two inches long, one for each building. Each strip represented 100 per cent and upon each were laid out spaces for the main divisions into which we divided the floor area. Upon the back of each strip was laid out the main subdivisions. These strips, which look like candles, could easily be arranged to show comparisons between the several divisions of the building without having in each case

to lay out again a complete draft. Each chart has been made by bringing together "candles" representing the buildings we were to compare.

Without attempting any lengthy discussion of findings, I wish at present simply to make clear two points:

1. Unless later findings change present results both grade and high schools are comparable and any regulations as to minimum standards may cover both without any differentiation.

2. By means of charts covering a sufficient number of school buildings the best standards may be determined.

Chart III shows a comparison of the percentages of seventeen grade and seventeen high schools taken without any selection other than sequence

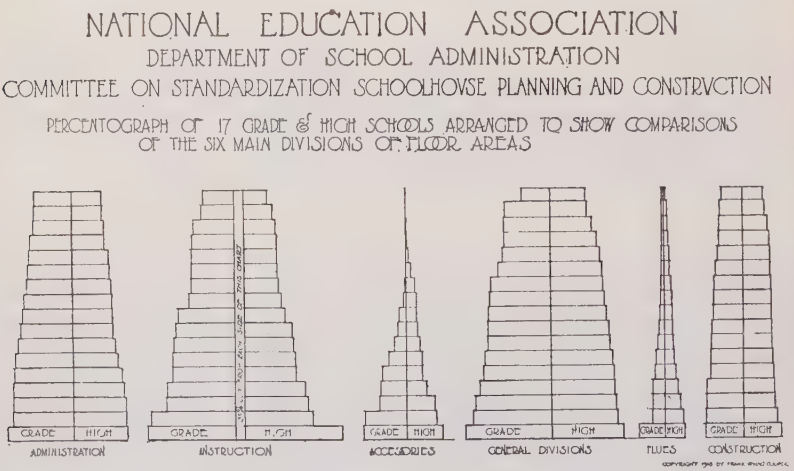


CHART III

and arranged under our six headings, walls and partitions, flues, stairs and corridors, accessories, instruction, and administration.

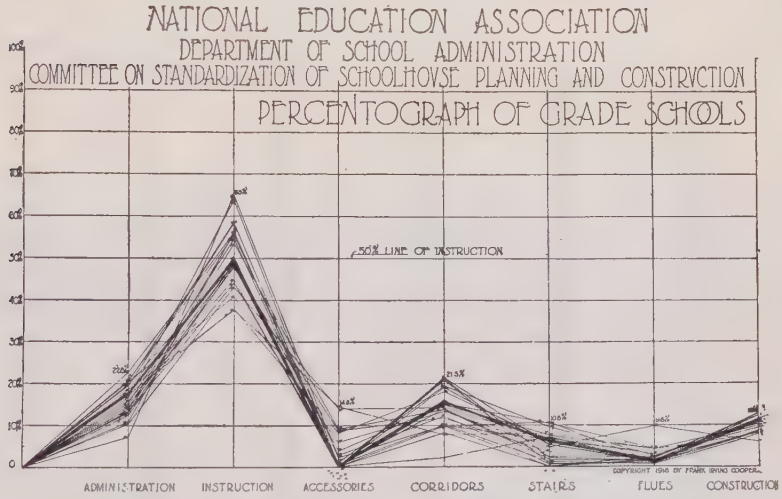
The grade schools are on the left, the high schools on the right, of a vertical line which represents zero in the graphs of walls and partitions, flues, stairs and corridors, accessories, and administration, but which represents 35 per cent in the graph of instruction. Each horizontal section represents the percentage area occupied by a division in one school. A glance is sufficient to show that in high and grade schools percentage areas for each division are approximately symmetrical.

In Chart IV each light line represents the percentage area of a single school—the heavy black line represents a school building that had 50 per cent of the area for instruction. A similar chart, with a line for each school tabulated, showed that the average space for instruction was 50 per cent. We establish the 50 per cent line as the *norm* in instruction.

By taking the candle charts representing grade schools charts of grade schools were prepared showing percentage areas in each division. Schools

showing high percentage area for instruction are low in accessories, stairs and corridors, and administration and indicate that the school officers and the architect had given proper study to all parts of the plan. Flues and construction being usually subject to definite regulations fall into groups of similar percentages and do not vary with relative values.

A chart constructed on the same principle as the chart for grade schools, but based on the investigation of high schools instead of grade schools, makes it evident that high schools and grade schools are comparable. The only reason for separating them has been the often-repeated argument that



grade- and high-school buildings could not be covered by the same regulations. If the large number of high and grade schools investigated so far agree so closely there is no reason to think that further investigation will do other than confirm these results.

Now the most important part of these school buildings is that devoted to instruction. If the space devoted to instruction falls below the 50 per cent line it is evident that there are some unusual conditions or that the plan has not received adequate study.

Chart V shows five Massachusetts high schools selected by agents of the Massachusetts Board of Education for tabulation by this Committee. These five schools are in different cities of the state and range in size from 40,000 square feet to over 200,000 square feet in area. It was supposed that there would be little comparison. But these five high schools offer an interesting example of the close comparison that may be expected where superintendents and architects are working with a definite goal in view.

Chart VI shows a study of three types of grade schools and three types of high schools. The chart is constructed on the principle used for the preceding charts. Some schools in all the groups have space for instruction above the 50 per cent line except grade schools of the old type. Of all the buildings examined those of two classes stand out as preeminently the best —the one-story grade school and the so-called junior high school.

Why is this so?

It is because these two types have been most carefully studied by our leading superintendents and our best schoolhouse architects. It is because

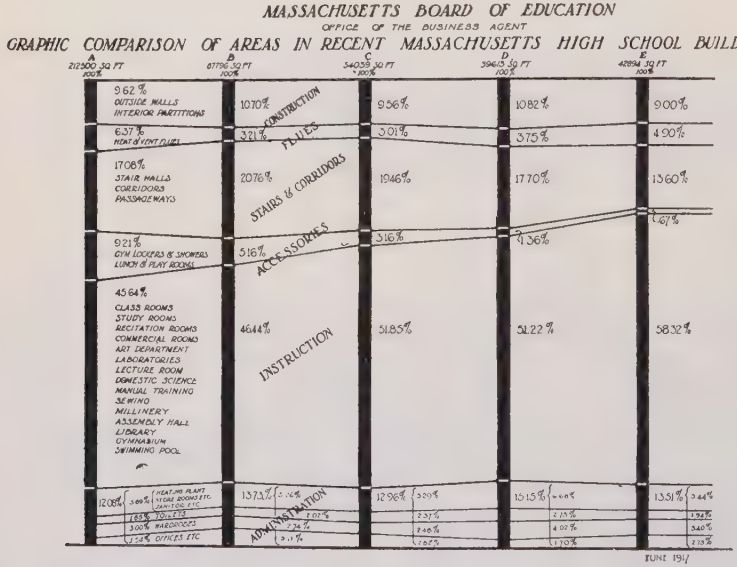


CHART V

they are a new type of school building and there are no bad habits of planning these buildings to be overcome. The superintendent and the committee have an open mind with regard to them, and the architect is allowed to carry out a building not planned on conventional lines with the usual extravagances. The possibility for improvement in the other types suggests that the time has arrived for getting together over the problems involved.

Here in general is the field to be covered.

1. The determination of best percentages and the adoption of minimum standards.

2. The unification of state regulations.

3. The investigation of building materials with special regard to the substitutes.

4. The problem of obtaining the greatest possible use from each part of the building. This fourth problem obviously depends upon the superintendent for its solution, being a problem of administration to be solved after the architect has done his share by providing the good school building for the good school.

To us this seems a fitting opportunity to lay out a national system to take up this work and make it of practical use for all parts of the country. We suggest the desirability of a general committee acting under the Department of Administration, a consulting body which should oversee the work, and a subcommittee in each state to supply information to every town or city which is about to build a school and to help them with advice as to the

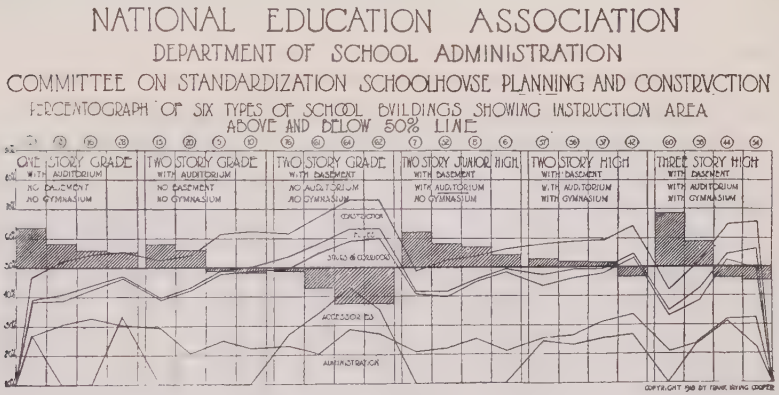

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION
COMMITTEE ON STANDARDIZATION SCHOOLHOUSE PLANNING AND CONSTRUCTION
PERCENTOGRAPH OF SIX TYPES OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS SHOWING INSTRUCTION AREA
ABOVE AND BELOW 50% LINE
ONE STORY GRADE WITH AUDITORIUM NO BASEMENT NO GYMNASIUM
TWO STORY GRADE WITH AUDITORIUM NO BASEMENT NO GYMNASIUM
TWO STORY GRADE WITH BASEMENT NO AUDITORIUM NO GYMNASIUM
TWO STORY JUNIOR HIGH WITH BASEMENT WITH AUDITORIUM NO GYMNASIUM
TWO STORY HIGH WITH BASEMENT WITH AUDITORIUM WITH GYMNASIUM
THREE STORY HIGH WITH BASEMENT WITH AUDITORIUM WITH GYMNASIUM
AUDITORIUM
SHOPS & CLASSROOMS
ACCESSORIES
ADMINISTRATION
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CHART VI

plans of school buildings. We suggest that there should be an inspection of school buildings and school-building plans under a definite questionnaire and schedule to be prepared by the general committee, and that the results of these inspections should be tabulated and published.

Now the duty before the National Education Association is to educate the country so that it will demand better-planned and more economical schoolhouses. We must consider how we may apply the standards of the National Education Association to future buildings. We must continue to build schoolhouses and they must not be overcrowded. We must have minimum standards which architect and superintendent will strive to raise and improve. This work should be carried on in a spirit of mutual helpfulness; any superintendent, committee, or architect should be able to turn to the committee of the National Education Association and obtain proper information and proper data, the best obtainable from any source.

WORK AND SCOPE OF THE JUNIOR RED CROSS

HENRY NOBLE MAC CRACKEN, PRESIDENT OF VASSAR COLLEGE, POUGHKEEPSIE, N.Y.

The Red Crescent still flaps defiantly over Samaria, but along the road the Good Samaritan once traveled your Red Cross flag goes winding down today toward ancient Jericho. The Red Cross is a living embodiment of the spirit of the Good Samaritan of old. It is the note of mutuality in the story of the Good Samaritan which set his act off from other good deeds. Being human was his regular business. He asked no questions, he uttered no criticisms, he sought out no causes; he did "what any man would do—what you would have done if you were in his place." The stranger wounded and robbed had afforded him an opportunity to show his humanity—that opportunity he instantly claimed as his human right. This is the spirit of mutual aid which has made your Red Cross of today.

Of the strength of such a spirit I need hardly speak. It was not merely a triumph of organization nor a recognition of business-like methods nor only a patriotic expression that led twenty-three and one-half millions of people at Christmas time to stand up and be counted at a dollar each for the Red Cross membership. As Dr. Finley has said, this enrolment is more significant than the ancient one when the whole Roman world went forth to be counted on the first Christmas. For the tribute which our citizens paid then was, not the tribute to Caesar, but a tribute of the spirit and a homage to eternal values inherent in the Red Cross idea.

This Red Cross idea appears under two aspects to one who has watcht it grow thru the past months at Washington. It is first of all the response by the community as a single social group which thru collective altruism helps individuals to freedom from calamities where self-help is not adequate. It is secondly an expression of citizenship such as Paul claimed when he compared himself with the chief captain who obtained with a great sum his citizenship—while Paul was free-born. The Red Cross expression of citizenship measures the innate power of free American-born communities to assume as by nature the general human tasks. Our people in many instances have for the first time been united by the Red Cross in common effort, and now they cannot wait for edict and proclamation to tell them how they may serve. The Red Cross is the economy of free will, of the volunteer spirit, and because it is so much an affair of the spirit it is one of the greatest forces today, as General Pershing cabled on last Monday. It maintains the morale of the troops in the trenches, the sailors on the sea, and also the folks young and old at home.

It has been often repeated—not too often, I think—that this is a war of nations; and the nation with the best morale will win, and morale means happiness. President Wilson said to me not long ago that one of his earliest memories as a boy was of knitting under his mother's watchful eyes for the

Confederate soldiers. The little boy learned to knit socks and could finish the toes, but not the heels—his mother always had to finish the heels for him. Today it is a question not of thousands but of millions of socks, and when the Army needs wool from the Red Cross storehouses the entire wool market is for a time absorbed. It was President Wilson's memory of those boyhood days when he felt that he was helping the cause for which his family was fighting that led him to approve the idea of a Junior Red Cross, and in a personal letter to me he said that he was sure that in future days school children would look back to the work of the Junior Red Cross as a happy circumstance of their school days. Happiness—this is the feature of the Junior Red Cross that I wish to emphasize in my few words today. The Junior Red Cross does not seek to bring to the school tales of pain and suffering and horror, feelings of war hate and of revenge, the encouragement of settling quarrels by might rather than by right; it offers instead a pleasant channel for the pent-up emotions of youth to pass out into useful fields of service. It hopes to divert the rising tide of juvenile delinquency, which is estimated by President Bodine, of the National League of Compulsory Education Officials, to have arisen 30 per cent in America since 1916, so that it shall not endanger our civic life. Believing that, as President Wilson said in his proclamation of September, the school is the natural center of their life the Junior Red Cross offers to young people a vitalizing power of purposeful activity within the school and under the control of school officials.

I wish to make this particularly clear because in the vast project as it is developt simultaneously in all parts of the country there has been misunderstanding here and there for which the Red Cross is probably most to blame because the organizers did not sufficiently keep this principle in mind—tho it has been stated again and again from the first. As our organization expands from day to day and our workers and officials understand its plan more clearly these misunderstandings vanish, and the justifiable suspicions of school authorities will fade away as they appreciate that the Red Cross seeks only to be their servant in maintaining for them a contact with world-activity which will bring the happiness of service to young hearts.

If it were possible within the limit assigned to me I should like to pay a personal tribute to the many school officials thruout the United States who have made the Junior Red Cross what it is today. They have taken its organization thru the schools, adapted it to suit their needs, and have by the power of the symbol and the definiteness and concreteness of the work broken down many barriers which have hitherto shut out the thoughts of many children from real unity with the purpose of American education—complete and comprehending citizenship. On Monday of this week a superintendent of city schools in my office told me of a woman who rejoist in the Junior Red Cross because her girl, formerly excited by the constant sight of soldiers in the town, now no longer spent the night upon the street,

but workt at home. She told also of children's work in the schools the very perfection of which had stirred the idle hands of well-to-do women in the city to activity and set their fingers to work in emulation of the children. I could multiply such instances by thousands as the records have come in from among our four or five millions of Junior members, but many of you must know these cases better and more intimately than I.

The Junior Red Cross organization plan is, I think, so well known that I need not describe it here. You are probably aware of the divisional organization by which Red Cross authorities decentralize at centers in the great cities of the country. You know too, I think, of the Chapter School Committee in each Red Cross chapter composed of school people and subdividing among its members the Red Cross city or country district into zones which again subdivide with chairman and committee into individual schools or school districts. It is a simple and workable plan, as experience shows, following and imitating the method of school organization already perfected. The strength of the Junior Red Cross lies in the vigor of this organization and in the spirit of self-sacrifice which animates the teachers whose strength of heart and body have fitted them to become officers in this organization. It lies in the principle of school membership, making pupils feel that what they do for the Red Cross they do for their school. It lies also in the accuracy with which school accounts and records of production are kept and in the fidelity of the divisional officials in handling the vast amount of production which is today sending from our sewing-classes garments which will clothe children and babies in Belgium, France, and Italy. It is the aim of the Red Cross to make its organization flexible yet strong, efficient yet responsive, loyal and obedient, yet always seeking new and better methods and instruments to accomplish the vast work which the government has assigned to it.

What is the scope of that work? The Red Cross today has a program of rescue and relief. It recruits doctors and nurses for the medical and nursing corps, it supplies the thousands of hospitals in France with their surgical materials, it maintains among our Allies the canteens and other services which count immeasurably for international good feeling, and for the morale both at home and abroad. It rescues with pitying hands the victims of our enemies' rapacity as they return from across the border broken in spirit and in body. It relieves the physical want and necessities of the army and navy depots by supplementing the regular equipment. It maintains communication with the families at home when the lad on sea or land is ill or wounded, or has won a victor's death. It supplies camps in this country with great quantities of comforts of different kinds and adds to the hospital care of the doctors and nurses. Among the homes from which the soldiers and sailors are gone it carries on a work complementary to the government grants of money in seeing to it that the social standards of the families do not suffer because their sons have answered their country's call.

And all the while in Halifax, in China, or in Guatemala the Civilian Relief of the American Red Cross goes quietly on its way without advertisement, turning every hill of difficulty, every path of distress and hardship into a Jericho road of helpfulness and sympathy.

And what of the future? Is war alone to call out such magnificent manifestations of the spirit as your American Red Cross? One cannot believe it possible. There will remain, when the last war note has sounded and the battle flags are furled, the way of reconstruction—reconstruction for other lands for a period not now possible to estimate, as the stricken soils of Belgium, Armenia, Servia, Italy, and France are restored and smile once more with the fruits of free citizens' labor. It means work, but we must help.

And reconstruction for America no less. Even if dreaded war eagles never hover over our rich cities there will be much to do in the way of reconstruction. To bring up the submerged groups out of poverty into self-support, to prevent by common control the return in successive generations and spread of the great plagues of mankind: feeblemindness, undernourishment, starvation, crimes of ignorance, crimes of disease, preventable mortality. The imagination falters in trying to measure the possibilities of such volunteer power as exists in the Red Cross of today.

Leaders of American education! The preparation for all this great program of betterment of which many men and women are dreaming must be of but one kind—beginning thru activities by education to prepare future citizens to undertake such work. This, I take it, will be the field of the Junior Red Cross of the future. May we all live to see the day when the Red Cross spirit has become a vitalizing force in the American educational program.

SCOUTING EDUCATION FOR GIRLS

ABBY PORTER LELAND, DIRECTOR, NATIONAL GIRL SCOUTS, NEW YORK, N.Y.

In this world-wide crisis of stress, storm, and suffering the educator of vision and wisdom thruout the land is weighing in the balance the school curriculum and asking himself, Does this curriculum which I am advocating train for citizenship? What kind of citizenship? Is the child, because he has been thru our schools, more capable, honest, and reliable? As willing to accept responsibility as he is to recognize his rights?

The Girl Scout organization, which it is my privilege to represent here today, recognizes keenly that the girlhood of America stands in urgent need of training for vigorous responsible womanhood and loyal, intelligent citizenship. This organization is an outgrowth of the Girl Guides of England. When Sir Robert Baden-Powell organized the Boy Scouts he found, besides the thousands of boys clamoring to be enroled, no less than six thousand girls. Wisely deciding against a single organization for both sexes, Sir Robert called on his sister, Miss Agnes Baden-Powell, to enrol

the girls as Girl Guides after a plan identical in fundamental aims and principles with the Boy Scouts, but entirely distinct in organization. The differences in detail in the application of the principles underlying scouting education are due to the differences, psychological and social, existing between girls and boys.

Working with Miss Baden-Powell was Mrs. Juliette Low, an American woman long resident in England. When in 1912 Mrs. Low returned to her native city of Savannah she was urged by Miss Baden-Powell and Sir Robert to organize Girl Guides in this country. She did so, forming the first troops in Savannah. But the girls, secure in the knowledge of the origin of the movement and reflecting the spirit of America, insisted upon being known as Girl Scouts and thus they were incorporated in Washington in 1915.

Girl Scouts are now organized in 510 cities and towns in the United States in cooperation with schools and parishes and as lone troops. Only four states are without troops. The growth of the movement has been as sound as it has been rapid. Its principles and methods have the indorsement and cooperation of leaders in education and human affairs all over the country; for example, the Department of Education of the state of New York accepts the Girl Scout work in lieu of three of the four hours required per week in physical training and recreation.

The scout movement does not contemplate the establishment of a new coordinate organization for the development of childhood alongside of the home, the church, the school, and the place of business. It is rather an enterprise calculated to combine all of these institutions upon the basis of the girl or the boy who lives in the home, the church, the school, and the workshop, and who in each of these places could be a better son or daughter, a better church member, a better pupil, a better employe, because he or she has embraced the principles of scouting and is working according to its program—a program that is real, flexible, and vigorous, that gives concrete expression to a high code of honor.

Dean Russell, of Teachers College, from his first-hand experience as chairman of the National Executive Board of Girl Scouts writes of the program as follows:

> Scouting differs from all other work for girls that I know about in that its primary aim is good citizenship. It seeks to develop physical strength, right posture, and grace of movement because these are essential to good health, to dignify the daily duties of the household because the home is made by woman, to care for the sick and protect young children because these are women's rights, to do good unto others whenever occasion offers because this is the law of love, and to train its members to keep mentally awake and morally straight because this is the way to grow. Other organizations, however, may claim as much. But the glory of scouting is that it makes these aims merely means to ends. The supreme end is service to God and Country.

Dr. William L. Rabenort, in whose large junior high school there are Girl Scout and Boy Scout troops, believes in the scout movement as one

of the great educational discoveries of our time. He suggests that since the school aims at the employment of existing agencies for education thru their vitalization and modernization rather than at the introduction of new activities or new agencies thoughtful school leaders may well pause to consider scouting for girls. To use Dr. Rabenort's educational terminology, "Scouting is the modern, spontaneous curriculum which children voluntarily embrace."

In the schools the curriculum has been selected for the children, who have to take what the schools prefer to give. Is it not a well-known fact that many children, while present in the classroom in body, are decidedly absent in spirit? Who can estimate the number of our grammar-school children who, because of no choice of what they shall study, have elected not to study at all? Furthermore are there not many supervisors and teachers, especially now when we are being forst back upon *real* things, discouraged at times because they feel that many plodding, faithful pupils under their care are acquiring *merely words*—a vocabulary sediment as it were?

Girl Scout education *leads;* it does not *coerce.* Hence its program is always such as will appeal to the instincts for play, for life in the open, for companionship, for altruistic service and novel experience, so as to attract, win, and hold its followers. Contrast the opportunities of scouting, therefore, with those of the school to develop initiative, responsibility, and leadership!

Scouting succeeds because girls like it. While for the girl the first interests are largely *recreational,* as opposed to the worklike routine of home and school, and *social,* as giving opportunity for companionship and for doing together real things, the deeper aim, as understood by the troop captains and other leaders and eventually appreciated by the girl herself, is "to promote, thru organization and cooperation with other agencies, the virtues of womanhood by training girls to recognize their obligations to God and Country, to prepare for the duties devolving upon women in the home, in society and the state, and to guide others in ways conducive to personal honor and public good."[1] In other words, scouting opens to girls pleasures which satisfy their natural healthy impulses and imagination and at the same time affords them a stimulating share in the interests and pursuits of adults. It is this, motivated by a high code of personal ethics developt thru the Scout laws that retains the interest of girls and gives final worth to the movement.

Every activity of the program of Girl Scouts, from the simple tests of the initiate to the standardized requirements of the first-class scout, connects directly with that same activity in adult life. It is a woman's job cut down to a girl's size, its difficulties so graduated as to put the rewards of achievement within the capacity of youth. These activities, covering

[1] Constitution, Article II.

the wide range of health, home, vocation, avocation, and citizenship, have been judged fundamentally sound by practical educators; their appeal to girls' interests and their reactions on girls' characters have been tested by trained workers in experimentation on widely differing groups. They consistently stress, not the rights of the girl, but her responsibilities.

The Girl Scout plan utilizes thruout the group-spirit. At no time does it emphasize the individual girl. Every activity tends to train her as a member of a group, responsible to a larger group, to the home, to the community, and to the nation. We find the troop the unit of organization doing the community a good turn. The troop undertakes certain sustained duties and executes them as a troop. It is the troop that volunteers to sweep the Red Cross workroom every day; consequently the individual scout whose turn it is to do the work has the honor of her whole troop behind her broom. It is the troop flag that is decorated with the war badge when the troop has achieved satisfactory results judged qualitatively and quantitatively in accordance with specified standards. Thru such special war activities as well as thru the more normal civic activities scouting teaches the young girl the law of service thru working in cooperation with others for the welfare of the community and the nation.

Civic consciousness, the *sine qua non* of intelligent citizenship, is gained by constant cooperation with civic organizations. Girl Scouts gain an understanding of the working of civic and social institutions from service to them. The product of their troop garden is sent to the community kitchen; the result of their canning work is given to the school lunch committee; the jams which they make from berries pickt in the woods last summer are intrusted to the district nurse for distribution. Every contribution either of service or of kind establishes a point of contact between these agencies and the individual girl. These points of contact increase and strengthen steadily during the girl's entire scouting experience, and their influence inevitably carries over into adult life. The active Girl Scout of today is the vigorous, clear-visioned, well-informed civic leader of tomorrow.

The nationalism of the Girl Scout organization is, it seems to me, one of its most urgent claims to attention. The unification of individuals and groups on a nation-wide scale for a great common purpose is an enormously valuable influence in the lives of young girls. It has been a great inspiration to the leaders in this work to observe how the national sense of these young girls has grown thru their participation as a national organization in the activities of our national life. The pride the widely separated units feel in the recognition Girl Scouts have received from the Department of Education, the Food Administration, the Department of Agriculture, the America First Committee, and the Women's Liberty Loan Committee has had an immediate and definite reaction on the troops and on the girls. Their purposes have steadied, their outlook has widened—they see beyond

themselves and their communities. When a troop plans a patriotic entertainment and invites the foreign-born women of the community as honored guests it senses in its undertaking a deeper significance than the surface manifestation.

National Headquarters, Girl Scouts, believes genuinely in training girls for citizenship thru scouting, i.e., thru apprenticeship, thru the actual participation of the girl in the real work of the community and nation. It offers to you, our educational leaders, its best facilities of cooperation in the preparation of the girls of America for the opportunities and responsibilities that lie ahead of them, in the preparation of the coming generation of women to take its part in the rebuilding of the world.

COUNCIL OF STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

A. CONFERENCE OF STATE SUPERINTENDENTS

THE NEW RESPONSIBILITIES AND OPPORTUNITIES WHICH THE WAR SITUATION HAS BROUGHT TO THE STATE DEPARTMENT AND THE SCHOOLS

FRED L. KEELER, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, LANSING, MICH.

I shall dispose of the first part of this topic by stating that the schools have no *new* responsibilities. Bankers and business men having under way some project in connection with the winning of the war often approach school teachers and school superintendents with an apology something like this: "We realize that we are putting you to a good deal of trouble. This business will take a good deal of time from your *regular* work." I believe, therefore, that it would be wise to make plain what our regular work is.

We are all familiar with the advice given annually to the graduates of our public schools when they receive their diplomas. The boys and girls are always askt to consider the great expenditure the community has made in order that they may have an education. They are askt to go out and demonstrate to the world that the expenditure has been wise. It is well that boys and girls be imprest with the fact that the community has done well by them. At the same time the patrons and taxpayers should understand clearly that not one cent of school tax was ever paid primarily for the education of these young people in order to equip them for personal success. The story is told of the Connecticut farmer who when askt by the collector to pay his school tax replied, "I will not pay the tax. You have no more right to ask me to pay for the education of my neighbor's

boy than you would have to take my plow to plow my neighbor's field." The Connecticut farmer was right. No one can be compelled to pay a tax for the education of his neighbor's child; not even can he be compelled to pay a tax for the education of his own child. But the fact of the matter is that everybody does pay the school tax and the state compels everybody's child to attend school. Upon what grounds is it done?

Some of you are graduates of the University of Michigan. Others have visited that institution. You may recall that in the old University Hall there is over the rostrum this inscription: "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary for good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." That sentence is taken from the Ordinance of 1787 which laid the foundation for the government of the Northwest Territory. The principle here laid down underlies our whole system of public education. Because knowledge is necessary to *good government* schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged. Why was the Connecticut farmer compelled to pay the tax? Why are young people given the advantages of our public schools? It is not in order that the neighbor's boy or Tom, Dick, Harry, or Susan may have a good education. It is because the most expensive and the most dangerous thing we can have is an ignorant neighbor. The tax is paid as an investment in good government—in intelligent citizenship. Incidentally of course the boy and girl is benefited personally, but no tax could be collected to advance the individual interests of the boys and girls.

I dwell on the point because I believe we should everywhere give teachers the correct point of view. Teachers should understand that they are not paid to teach reading and writing and arithmetic primarily; they are paid to train young people for citizenship in a democracy. In so far as reading and writing and arithmetic are helpful to that end we are justified in teaching them, and instruction in the common branches may then properly be the *regular school work*. However, the world war has forst upon us matters which are of immediate and vital consequence. In so far as the public schools can aid in the solution and execution of these problems it is their duty to do so, but not as a *new* responsibility to which the school owes its existence. There is nothing in this situation which need give teachers uneasiness as far as the regular school work is concerned.

On the other hand the new situation forces upon us activities which are most vital in their educational content. In the last few years we have heard much of motivation. We regret that the thing we have been seeking should come to us thru a world-tragedy, but, that fact aside, we have from an educational standpoint an opportunity to motivate our school work which we should grasp eagerly.

During the past year the public schools have taken an active part in work incident to the war. Not all of the things attempted have been profitable. Many of the things which the schools have been askt to do

have resulted only in dissipation of energy. We have felt obliged to respond to the solicitation of numerous organizations each having its peculiar project to advance. I hope we have seen the last of this. As far as Michigan is concerned agencies wishing to use the public schools as a medium will hereafter approach them thru the Superintendent of Public Instruction. That arrangement will give him opportunity to ascertain the merits of the enterprises that are proposed. He will often be obliged flatly to refuse indorsement of schemes submitted. He has already done so in several instances.

Among the most ill-advised enterprises are those that have originated with some of the federal bureaus. A public official feels of course that it is his duty to support everything that the government proposes. However, some of the things proposed are so ill-considered that a man jeopardizes, what little reputation he may have for sanity by indorsing them.

I say I hope that we have seen the last of these hysterical projects. Before a thing is foisted upon the public schools of the nation it should receive the most thoro consideration from persons who are by training and experience endowed with good school sense. I understand that it has now been arranged at Washington that enterprises which are to be carried out thru the public schools will hereafter be submitted to the Bureau of Education or to the Director of the Federal Board for Vocational Education. That is as it should be. When millions of school children are askt to do a certain thing it should be well calculated that the thing is first of all worth the effort, and furthermore that its execution is possible and profitable. As a rule the thing undertaken should have some educational value. If it cannot be justified on educational grounds I believe we may well hesitate to promote it.

I shall name four general lines of work which I believe schools may undertake with profit:

1. The Liberty Loan and Thrift Stamp campaigns.
2. Junior Red Cross work.
3. Education for fuel and food conservation.
4. Mold public opinion to produce intelligent and sustained patriotism.

Our schools have taken a very active part in the Liberty Loan drives. No more effective lesson in civics has ever been taught in our schools, nor is there a more effective agency to promote the Liberty Loan drives than the public schools. I have seen school children in the grammar and high-school grades organize in mass meeting to put the thing across. The procedure was carried thru with a finish that would do credit to most experienst politicians. From all standpoints I believe that it is proper for the public schools to push these drives, and I shall continue to stimulate effort in this direction.

The public schools should take up the work promoted by the Junior Red Cross. It is not the money raised by getting a large membership

that should be emphasized, but rather the work that is carried on under the direction of the Red Cross organization. Here is very concrete material for instruction in the manual arts. Every child from the first grade to the last may do something which will be useful in a material way. Incidentally we are teaching a great lesson in civics. The Junior Red Cross work is being pusht vigorously in Michigan. I indorse it heartily.

There are rational things that can be done in connection with the food and fuel conservation. In the teaching of elementary science and domestic art we have now a very real object in studying the comparative values of foods. Agriculture and related sciences are now more meaningful. The production of food has assumed the position of first importance. Every child whether in the city or in the country is concerned in the matter. It is not necessary that new subjects be introduced along these lines. It will usually be sufficient that the old subjects be studied from a new point of view. In this connection the lessons publisht by the Bureau of Education prove very helpful in directing the work of the teachers along practical lines.

Finally let me say that just as certain as man does not live on bread alone this war is not going to be won by food alone. This war is going to be won by the side that has the deepest convictions. I therefore hold that the most fundamental thing our schools have to do is to cultivate in our pupils and in our people a true understanding of what the issues are. I believe that the main strength of the Kaiser today is forty years of false education—education by autocracy for autocracy. It must be met and destroyed by generations of true education—education by democracy for democracy. It is not sufficient to recite patriotic selections and sing national songs. The schools should study in thoro fashion the causes which set the world ablaze. The world-war had been in progress nearly three years when the United States entered. The world at large did not know what the trouble was about until the President of the United States in his message last April crystallized the whole situation. That message has been printed by the Department of Public Instruction and has been furnisht to all the high schools of the state. All candidates for teachers' certificates in Michigan this year will be examined on the war message.

In his message of last December the President stated the aims and aspirations of the American people with a sincerity and lucidity that made a profound impression on the civilized world. The language of the message is so simple and clear that it may be read and understood by the children of the grammar grades as well as of the high school. The Department of Public Instruction has edited this speech for the use of the public schools of Michigan and a first edition of 75,000 has been printed. The state examination in reading for graduates of the elementary schools will be based upon this publication. I believe that an intensive study of this message by 75,000 eighth-grade children in Michigan is bound to make for an intelligent appreciation of the crisis in which we are involved.

The Committee on Public Information at Washington is doing commendable work in enlightening public opinion. There are at hand also multitudes of publications from other sources relating to the war. Most of these, however, have been put together hurriedly. They are fragmentary in character. None of them tells the story of the war in a comprehensive way and in language that the man of the street can comprehend. We have therefore undertaken to put within the compass of 150 pages a bird's-eye perspective of the world-war, a brief sketch of the component forces that have resulted in the catastrophe. This publication will be a dispassionate discussion of unquestioned data. It will aim simply to tell the truth. It is planned primarily as a brief course that may be taken up by classes in the public schools while they lay aside for two or three weeks the routine textbook work. It will present nothing new, but will place old material in a new focus. The work will be the product of reliable scholarship. We shall supply this publication free in quantities on request to the public schools of the state. I am determined that every boy and girl in Michigan shall know why it is that the young men of their neighborhood are crossing the water. And if these young men never return, I am determined that our people shall know why they made the sacrifice.

On the shield of the great seal of the state of Michigan is the Latin word *Tuebor* which translated means, "I will defend." At the opening of school last fall we made *Tuebor* the watchword for the year and every year until the war shall end. Let me read to you the platform upon which the boys and girls of Michigan stand.

TUEBOR

On the Fourth of September Uncle Sam will call an army which surpasses all the armed hosts of Europe. More than twenty million boys and girls will report at the Public School, the training camp of American Democracy.

And here are the orders of the Commander in Chief:

Boys and Girls of America:

I have always need of you. You are my Grand Army of Preparedness. I summon you to your task for the safety of the Republic. The worst enemy in our land is the ignorant man or woman. You are to be intelligent men and women. Every time you get a lesson well you strike a blow at ignorance.

But today I am much in need of you. I am distrest by enemies across the sea. I depend upon you, Boys and Girls, to help destroy their power, for they would rob us of the liberty we enjoy.

How can you do this?

Every boy and girl that breathes deep, sleeps well, and eats right, serves our country.

Every boy that pulls a weed and plants a seed feeds an American boy in the trenches and, besides, puts food in the pantry while father is at the front.

Every girl that makes a bandage soothes a soldier's pain; and when she sweeps and dusts a room gives mother added strength to meet the care and grief that mothers always bear in cruel war.

Boys and Girls, be strong, work hard. Do the dishes and keep the woodbox full! On every home put up the sign:

THE BOYS AND GIRLS OF THIS HOUSE
DO THEIR PART
THEY OBEY ORDERS

DISCUSSION

A. N. FARMER, superintendent of schools, Evanston, Ill.—Superintendent Keeler has indicated vividly and constructively the present situation and its demands on the schools. He has pointed out that it is absolutely vital to effective training for citizenship that we instil a spirit of service in every boy and girl, and that this spirit can come only thru service.

Participation by the children in Junior Red Cross work, the buying of Thrift Stamps and the selling of Liberty Bonds, the cooperation of each one in saving foods needed by our Allies and substituting others in their place, offer opportunities for children to carry their part of the tremendous load the nation must bear. This is not only training for citizenship, but it is citizenship, and citizenship of the highest type.

In addition the schools may render a service of inestimable value to the government as a publicity agency. Think of the possibilities in training an army of our twenty million children to carry the messages and appeals of the President and of executive-department heads to the homes from which they come. Who can estimate the good that may come from teaching children the fundamental facts and issues involved in the war so that they can take them into homes where they may not be understood and where prejudices that threaten the welfare of the nation may exist?

The suggestion is wise that teachers need instruction to enable them effectively to meet the new demands imposed upon the schools as a result of the war. Requiring teachers to study and master the essential facts and arguments in the presidential messages and other state papers so that they will be able to interpret them to pupils will help to accomplish this result. But this, it seems to me, is not enough. Teachers cannot teach what they do not understand, nor train in activities which they themselves cannot perform. Experience has demonstrated that without definite instruction supplemented by special training when needed the time of thousands of teachers and millions of children will be wasted.

There is one other fact which I think should be considered in connection with the discussion of this subject. The reconstruction period following the war will bring many changes. The world can never be what it was before the war. The changes ahead will affect every department of our lives, public and private; every individual, every institution, will feel the pressure of new duties and obligations.

That the schools will readjust curricula and methods of instruction is inevitable. There has been much dissatisfaction with school organization and the results which have been accomplisht. No one has felt the need for readjustment more than school people themselves. Some adjustments have been made, but greater and more fundamental changes are ahead of us. The conditions growing out of the war will force the issue. Changes that would have taken a generation may come within a brief space of time.

The schools of our country must prepare to give training to the soldiers who are returned crippled, maimed, blinded, or otherwise unfitted to carry on pre-war occupations. Within a few months we may have many thousands of these. To make their lives endurable and to fit them for useful service is an educational problem that should be dealt with by the public schools.

Then again, at the close of the war the colleges and universities must take care of the men who cut short their training to enlist for military service. During the past month

I have heard the problem discust by some of the leading university presidents and college professors. All agreed that present courses of study and the usual methods of instruction would fail to satisfy these men. They will come back from the war with a vastly different outlook upon life and its meaning and responsibilities. They are likely to have little sympathy or patience with much of present college work or with the men giving it.

It seems to me that it is particularly the duty of the state departments of public instruction to exercise leadership in the study and solution of these and many other educational problems that will be forst upon us. I would urge that this body authorize the appointment of a committee composed of the ablest school men in America representing the various divisions of our educational system, to study the whole situation, to formulate the principles that should be kept in mind when considering proposed changes, and to outline a program for nation-wide adoption.

If something effective is not done there is danger that individuals will make serious blunders in dealing with the situation. As the government has been swampt by war requirements, so the schools will soon find themselves faced with problems which must be solved and which should have been studied. The result is likely to be a chaotic, disorganized, and ineffective series of local attempts to deal with a national situation.

The relation of the state department of public instruction to the various war activities for the schools is, it seems to me, very clear. The war is a world-emergency. The situation must be met as an emergency. Some things we have been accustomed to do must give way; subject-matter must be changed and adapted; methods of procedure must be modified. We must, of course, safeguard the interests of the children; they must not be exploited, but the war must be won. Daily it is becoming more apparent that it cannot be won without intelligent and loyal cooperation to the utmost on the part of every institution, every man, woman, and child. Never has there been greater need of wise and far-seeing leadership. The state departments of public instruction occupy a strategic position to provide this leadership, if they have the vision, the wisdom, and the organization.

HOW SHALL WE CONDUCT THE THRIFT CAMPAIGN SO AS TO CAUSE IT TO ATTAIN ITS MAXIMUM EFFECTIVENESS?

M. P. SHAWKEY, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF FREE SCHOOLS, CHARLESTON, W.VA.

Reading has been called the art preservative of arts. In like manner thrift may be declared to be the virtue preservative of virtues, for habits of thrift are conducive to practically all other good habits. A thrifty man is necessarily sober, industrious, thoughtful, ambitious, persistent, and optimistic. Amid such a throng of virtues it is almost if not entirely impossible for vices of any sort to thrive. At the present time, moreover, thrift has the patriotic quality to a high degree.

To substitute corn bread for wheat may be some slight sacrifice, to contribute to the Y.M.C.A. or Red Cross army work is generosity, to invest in Liberty Bonds may be taken as a declaration of faith in the government but to inaugurate habits of thrift and invest in the War Savings Stamps at once kills a horde of vices, plants a garden of virtues, and at the same time insures the future prosperity of the people. Little wonder then that the W.S.S. campaign has taken hold of the schools of the nation with a more

pulling appeal than any other of the numerous great war-service drives. The fact is that this campaign spells opportunity for our schools as no other movement of the times has done. It is an opportunity for moral training of a definite and substantial character reinforst by a patriotic appeal that is irresistible. It holds out the hope of a more earnest, efficient, and unselfish citizenship for tomorrow than could possibly have been but for this great opening for the schools to mold a character of rugged nobility while the heel of the war god rests on the prostrate neck of common vices.

This is one of the campaigns that must eventually find its way into the home and heart of every man and woman wearing the honored title of American. It cannot stop in the newspapers or even in the offices of the great bankers or captains of industry. It must spread out into the distant places and make its path clear up to the prairie shanty and the mountain-side cabin, a friend alike to the resorts of aristocracy and the haunts of poverty. It must reach the consciousness of twenty million children and four times as many adults spread over a domain twice as large as the European area of the Central Empire and the Triple Entente combined. To bring about such a magnificent result will require wise, clear-headed, and inspiring leadership, and a prodigious amount of patient, painstaking labor. Without the aid of our thoroly organized school system such a result would be impossible. With the aid of the school system, which is to be given unstintedly, its accomplishment requires only adequate leadership and unrelenting industry.

The schools should not be expected to do all the work. They have duties so sacred and so necessary that they may not be sacrificed. Besides the schools must not give all their of help to this movement no matter how important it may be. There are numerous other campaigns that will ask for assistance from them and they ought to get it.

There are two ways of bringing about thrift: first, by spending or consuming less, and secondly, by increasing our earnings or producing more. I can perhaps make no better use of the time allotted to this paper than to present some ways of doing these two things which are especially applicable to boys and girls of school age.

The Department of Schools of West Virginia made the teaching of thrift a slogan during the year 1916, and in a bulletin issued for the purpose of emphasizing the teaching it suggested among others the following means of saving applicable to pupils:

1. Cut out the little, worthless extravagances such as the use of chewing gum. The year before our war began we spent $13,000,000 for chewing gum, of which the larger part was paid out by boys and girls of school age.

2. Buy less candy. Our national candy account amounts to $360,000,000 a year. We average one cent per capita a day on candy and sweet drinks. That amount in sweets saved would easily supply our Allies with all the sugar needed.

3. Omit the expensive gowns and fine stationery commonly used at Commencement. It ought to be a happier graduation for any American boy or girl who has given up some luxury for the sake of his country in its time of stress.

4. Get along without the lavish annual usually publisht by the Senior high-school class necessitating both costly printing and a great deal of extra photographing.

5. Manage to get all possible use out of books, paper, pencils, and pens. The cost of all these things is much higher now than in times of peace.

6. Take care of clothing, boots, and shoes, and all articles of dress so as to get the maximum of wear out of them.

There are larger possibilities in these and other similar economies especially affecting children than the average person would dream of without careful investigation.

The opportunities for earning or saving something are even greater. Our bulletin called attention to such as the following:

1. Gather nuts and sell them. Chestnuts, hickory nuts, and walnuts grow "wild" in most of the eastern states, so that almost any child can find some of them, and any of them will bring a fair price.

2. Pick up and sell old iron, copper, rubber, rags, and leather. The market is the best in history. I know of a graduate of a great college who turned to picking rags and died worth a small fortune five years ago.

3. Nothing appears to be quite so abundant in this country just now as waste paper. It may be saved and sold at a good price.

4. The Curtis Publishing Company and other similar publishers offer fine inducements to boys to turn their spare moments into cash.

5. In some sections of the country wild blackberries, raspberries, or huckleberries may be pickt and marketed so as to yield a considerable income for a boy.

6. The greatest opportunity of all is in the garden. Every boy whether in town or country can have a garden plot these days and be assured of a ready sale for his products at profitable prices. Ten million of the boys and girls of this country ought to have gardens this coming season. The possibilities of such a scheme nation-wide are staggering. If every one of these ten million young Americans should garden to his maximum of ability, together they could feed our entire army abroad for the greater part of the coming year.

If the army of boys and girls of the public schools will save, earn, and produce as much as possible they will insure the success of the War Savings campaign. For the most part I have found the youngsters ready and anxious to do their part, but naturally they need instruction, guidance, and stimulation. With us the most popular and successful device has been the offer of a premium—a Thrift Stamp to every school child who buys one and takes a pledge to purchase stamps enough to fill a $5.00 book. The funds for this subsidy have been contributed mostly by the commercial

organizations, and the campaign is swiftly spreading over the state. Our Agricultural Extension Department has taken it up, and Mr. Kendrick, state club agent, has sent out a letter to his host of club workers so unique that I think it worth reproducing here. Writing to these farm boys and girls about how they can save $5.00 and at the same time loan it to Uncle Sam he says:

How to get the 1st stamp:	Join the local boys' and girls' agricultural club and send to the Extension Department for your first Thrift Stamp and card.
How to get the 2d stamp:	Catch some fur and sell it.
How to get the 3d stamp:	Some bank or trust company in your county is giving a stamp to any boy or girl who already has bought one. Look them up.
How to get the 4th stamp:	Gather up and sell some old rubber or scrap iron.
How to get the 5th stamp:	Sell a rabbit, some pop corn, or nuts.
How to get the 6th stamp:	Sell some cottage cheese or rye hominy.
How to get the 7th stamp:	Sell a dozen eggs or ears of corn.
How to get the 8th stamp:	Be agent for a farm paper.
How to get the 9th stamp:	Test seed corn (1 cent per ear).
How to get the 10th stamp:	Cut wood or get in wood for fires.
How to get the 11th stamp:	Build fires at church or schoolhouse.
How to get the 12th stamp:	Make some maple syrup.
How to get the 13th stamp:	Get 25 cents for killing six rats at home.
How to get the 14th stamp:	Work for a storekeeper on Saturday.
How to get the 15th stamp:	Save some grease and make homemade soap.
How to get the 16th stamp:	Sell a basket of greens.

This is first rate for making the start. Final success in the whole scheme will require thoro organization and careful, patient management. But we must do it. There should be neither halt nor hesitation. We haven't yet begun to do what we can do. Lloyd George declared two years ago to his English compatriots that "extravagance costs blood—the blood of heroes." There is yet a tremendous amount of extravagance in this country, if we count as extravagance most of the things that are unnecessary.

Mr. Vanderlip in a recent appeal says:

The nation must save. Every individual must learn and practice the lesson of economy, of self-denial, of saving to the point of sacrifice. Thrift will mean triumph.

Every individual should realize that saving money means saving lives.

The school teachers of America must teach the nation this imperative way to victory—this preeminent way to maintain a national strength which will safeguard posterity and advance civilization.

The school teacher is the pioneer outpost of the government, standing at the threshold of the nation's homes. The schools of America are the single units where a national resolution can form and spread overnight into every household.

To the teachers belongs the splendid privilege, the solemn duty, of rallying them round the flag and then implanting in their hearts and sending into the homes of America, the message which will keep that flag flying high.

We must save money that we may save lives. The educators of America enjoy no greater privilege than that of being able to teach this lesson to the nation; and for the sake of the lives of millions of its finest boys the educators of America may be depended upon to teach it quickly and well.

B. CONFERENCE OF COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS

THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENCY AND ITS PROBLEM

P. C. FAIR, PRINCIPAL OF SCHOOLS, MANSFIELD, LA.

It is needless for me to say that I am indeed glad to be with the National Education Association in this the greatest of all educational meetings. I am glad first, because, having dedicated my life to the school children of Louisiana, being with you will enable me to do greater things for them. Again I am glad to be here for it affords me an opportunity to bring you tidings of the great work we are doing for the coming manhood and womanhood of Louisiana thru our schools. We feel that Louisiana has one of the best and soundest public school systems in the country.

The superintendents as well as the other members of the teaching force are summoned to serve anew in the great world-crisis that is now at hand. This great crisis has made over anew many, many problems of the county superintendency, one of which is selecting teachers. Only a short while ago a superintendent could secure efficient teachers with but little difficulty, and now no superintendent in Louisiana has his quota. He has no more perplexing question than that of securing teachers. In our parish, and I believe DeSoto is typical of other parishes of Louisiana, many schools are now facing the fact that they must open up next fall far short of the required teaching force.

We as teachers fully realize that the war for democracy and human freedom can never be won unless the teaching force is willing to pay the price and make the supreme sacrifice of service which they only can do. If we are to realize the fairer civilization which is to come from winning this the greatest world-struggle, the superintendency must summon to the colors its soldiers, who must answer the call no matter what the price. But we do not feel that the teaching force will answer this summons unless the superintendents accept their places as captains in this great army and martial their forces to the front and "over the top." Here we feel it is necessary for the superintendent, as well as for every teacher, to rededicate himself and his services to the school children of the country. Children are only undevelopt citizens and must have in the new experiences which every child of today is having such guidance as will make of him a citizen who will function for his Republic as a true citizen should.

While every true teacher is willing to make the proper and necessary sacrifice, he must receive sufficient pay to maintain self-respect. But the superintendent is unable to offer the teachers the necessary salaries unless the funds are available and adequate enough to justify it. There must be something done along these lines, or superintendents are going to be forst to employ such teachers as they can get with the funds at hand. In many cases there will be inefficient teachers, which will result in lowering

the standard of the teaching force, which condition means a defeat of the efforts which our public-school authorities have been making to bring the schools to the present splendid standard of excellence. Now we must do one of the three following: go without teachers, and close the schools; lower the standard of teaching and teachers, thereby injuring the future citizenship; or raise the salaries commensurate with other professions. This will hold the competent and efficient teachers. In so doing we shall be able to develop a new and fairer civilization that will reach the highest ideals of humanity.

The problems now facing the superintendency are the results of new conditions, and to solve them without injury to the children is going to require the soundest and sanest of judgment and good common sense. In the adjustment of these problems the county superintendent is going to be the directing influence. He should first ask himself, "How can I go about this matter for the preservation of my schools?" For it is no longer a question of justice to the teachers, but simply one of running his schools. Therefore we would say that it is now time for extreme measures to be taken for the sake of the school children and also for the sake of democracy.

To make clear the statements we have made with respect to some of the problems of the superintendency we would like to give you data collected with regard to what teachers are doing on their meager salaries. We give this for the express purpose of showing what is expected, or we might say demanded, of teachers. In Kansas City during one year 123 teachers at a salary of $1,000 each per year spent $16,537 on war and local charities and Liberty Bonds, while the same teachers spent each about forty-five dollars for recreation during the same time. Now we do not feel that a teacher is getting much recreation out of forty-five dollars spread out over a period of three hundred and sixty-five days, not to the extent that she can bring fresh life, vim, human interest, and companionship into her work with children.

We say to you frankly that this problem of teachers is one of most vital importance to us, and of all problems of the superintendency the one that should be lookt into first. Some states have hundreds of schools without teachers, and the slogan of many, many teachers is, "Anything but teaching."

Almost daily we hear some teacher say, "Why, the superintendent does not appreciate my efforts. I have been teaching for him two, three, five, or more years," as the case may be, "and the board has never offered to raise my salary, not so much as offered a small bonus, when even the men who drill oil wells get a substantial raise of salary and a nice bonus also." And too, after such statements we hear this question, "What can you do?" The answer is echoed back very quickly, "Most any thing is better than teaching. One of my students of last year now in a local bank is drawing more annual salary than I, and does not work nearly so hard. Besides,

the bank appreciates her at Christmas with a neat little bonus, with a nice little card, 'A merry, merry Xmas and a happy New Year.' Why, who ever heard of a superintendent being authorized by a school board to do such a thing!"

We think that the time has come when teachers should let it be known that teaching is a profession and must be lookt upon as such by those who are recipients of their conscientious efforts.

Now is the time for the county superintendency to show its colors. It can well afford further increases in salaries. The conditions are ripe for it. The time of pale, whispering pussy-foot arguments for higher salaries no longer "goes." No, no longer should we as the teaching profession put up with such, for ultimatums unmistakable are being thundered and flasht by the most obvious conditions on every hand. A nation-wide drive among the county superintendency is needed. No other work is so necessary for them. Not to do this aggressively and conscientiously is to give comfort and aid to both the child's and democracy's worst enemies, ignorance and incompetence.

With one more thought, for which I am indebted to Mrs. Mary C. C. Bradford, president of the National Education Association, I shall close. Superintendents, you are called to the colors by the Spirit of America, by the needs of children, by the Soul of Civilization. Will you not heed this call? Will you not be up and doing? Will you not save our schools by holding the competent and efficient teachers in the profession?

STANDARDIZING THE SMALL COUNTRY SCHOOL

J. H. BINFORD, SECOND ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, RICHMOND, VA.

Nearly five million country boys and girls attend the one-teacher schools of the United States. Does this statement seem exaggerated? Listen to the roll call of some of the states. Illinois has more than 10,000 of these little schools, Minnesota 7000, Nebraska 6000, Virginia 5000, North Dakota 4000. The rest of the states make a similar showing. Massachusetts boasts that it has only 500 one-teacher schools; but when we remember that the Bay State has 90 per cent of its population classified as urban, we see that even the state of Horace Mann still retains in its rural sections the small country school.

What shall we do for the vast army of country children who now get a totally inadequate training in the small country schools which abound in all rural sections? These children are to be the country dwellers of the next generation. Most of the graduates of rural high schools will leave the farm, but these boys and girls of the one- and two-teacher schools will remain to practice a system of farming of a much more complicated and scientific type than has characterized the farming of the past. Will they

gradually sink to the level of the European peasant or will they, while maintaining the best American traditions, practice scientific agriculture?

To the average student of rural education there is only one solution of rural education—consolidation. As an ideal proposition we agree with Dr. Joyner, of North Carolina, that the smallest country school which can really train for social efficiency is the three-teacher type. With the increasing density of population and the improvement of rural transportation the country community will each year include a wider area. Gradually the large school will become the prevailing type.

In the meantime, however, we have five million country children in one-teacher schools. The practical problem is, not to give these children a high-school education, but to give them in the schools they now attend a 100 per cent better training than they are now receiving. If we accomplish this improvement we bring about two important results: first, we give the country child a far better education than he now receives; secondly, we hasten the coming of the consolidated school.

But how shall we improve the one-teacher school? We first think of compulsion thru legislative enactments administered by a highly centralized state department of education. Write into our school laws statutes requiring the county system of administration, minimum school terms and teachers' salaries, trained teachers and closer supervision, and you solve the small-school problem.

But it is difficult to get rural communities to live up to rigid state school regulations. The farmer is conservative and the rural school is supported either by local revenues or by state funds appropriated on the per capita basis. The country-school teacher and trustee and more especially the average farmer do not know what constitutes a good school. The first step, therefore, is to raise the educational ideals of the rural community, to carry on a campaign of persuasion and education to the end that local pride may be aroused and the rural community may strive to measure up to the requirements of a good school as set by the state.

The burden of my remarks up to this point is that we must improve the small country school and that the first step and the most effective is standardization. Like all other movements the standard-school movement is open to criticism. But I beg that you do not condemn the movement because of any defect or inconsistency in the plan which excites your attention. You can be a disciple of consolidation and still adhere to standardization. You need not reject the plan because of the difficulties in its administration.

What are the characteristics of a good standardization scheme?

1. The requirements to be met by the rural community must be definite. To illustrate, it will not do to say that the schoolhouse must be "well lighted." One state uses this expression and even adds, "The light must come from the left and the windows must have adjustable shades." The

important matter, however, of the ratio of window space to floor space is omitted. Again the expression "attractive interior decorations" is quite prevalent in standardization plans, but what does this expression mean? Many states say, "The attendance must be good." This requirement should be made still more definite by designating what percentage constitutes good attendance. To show what a stimulating effect standardization may have upon rural teachers, let us note a few of the definite requirements laid down by some of the states. One state requires that a standard school must have a well-cataloged school library containing not less than 100 volumes and including juvenile books. Another state makes supplementary readers and drill cards required items. Wisconsin requires at least four pieces of play apparatus, while Colorado requires a phonograph.

2. The requirements must be in reach of at least the more progressive rural communities of the state. Colorado rightly gives a credit of eight points for a teachers' residence, but this feature would be impossible of attainment in other states. Kansas requires the teacher of a standard school to be a four-year high-school graduate. In Pennsylvania, where conditions are different, only two years of high-school education is obligatory. There are some requirements, however, such as instruction in domestic science, membership in agricultural clubs, and the teaching of agriculture which should appear in every plan, not as essential, but as entitled to considerable credit. It is our duty to spread in the country schools these new and essential things in modern education.

3. Every standard-school plan must provide for a well-organized propaganda for the spreading of the movement. Not only breakfast foods and chewing gum, but new movements in education must be advertized. Most of the states issue attractive score cards to be prominently displayed on the school walls. Handsome diplomas and door plates are awarded schools placed on the standard lists. A number of the most beautifully illustrated pamphlets issued by state departments deal with the standardization of country schools. This attractive literature, mailed to the remotest sections of the state, arouses great interest and is essential to the success of any plan of standardization.

4. There must be an effective plan for the inspection of schools applying for standardization, and accurate records must be kept of all such schools. The failure to provide for these two things constitutes one of the main objections to standardization. No standardization plan can be a success without adequate office force to keep the records and sufficient field force to see that the schools measure up to requirements while on the standard list. While the state supervisor of rural schools should do considerable field work, the burden of inspection must fall upon the local superintendents and supervisors. All records should be kept by the state department of education.

5. While not essential, it is highly desirable that there should be a special state appropriation to every standard school. In Virginia every one-teacher standard school receives an extra appropriation of $50 out of the one- and two-room special appropriation and every two-teacher school meets ing the standards receives $100. Wisconsin's plan rests upon an appropriation giving special aid to schools which meet statutory requirements. No rural school in Texas can share in the annual appropriation of one million dollars without meeting the requirements laid down by the state, and the 462 schools which in 1916–17 met these requirements received each the handsome bonus of $300 from the state. The hope of sharing in a special state fund is undoubtedly a powerful stimulus to the country community.

In conclusion I submit that this plan of improving the small country school has past the experimental stage. It is employed by a large majority of the states, and a composite score card compiled from the several states will give you the standards which the ablest rural school experts in the country have set up for country schools. It has been impossible up to this time to standardize the instruction in these small schools, and herein is a serious defect of the standardization plan. But the standards for the physical part of the school, length of term, salary and training of teachers, enrolment and attendance of pupils, and the curriculum have been made very definite. These things constitute the foundation upon which thoro instruction must rest, and if we can attain these ideals we can well leave to our successors the standardizing of the instruction.

THE COUNTY AS A UNIT OF ORGANIZATION

MAURICE S. H. UNGER, SUPERINTENDENT OF CARROLL COUNTY SCHOOLS, WESTMINSTER, MD.

Probably the most difficult problem for a democracy to solve is that of finding the machinery necessary to administer its affairs adequately and efficiently. As a democracy cannot continue to exist as such unless it grows constantly, it follows that its governmental methods cannot remain dormant and yet continue to serve the purposes for which they were contrived. Thuthruout the history of the growth of democracy we find a constant evolution of new methods and practices developt in order to serve the needs of the body politic.

In the United States schools and the means of education arose as distinctly community undertakings and not as state systems. The development has been from the community outward, and the organization of county and state school systems has come by a gradual grouping together of these community efforts. As the several states have gradually formulated their school laws and systems it has naturally followed that markt differences obtain in methods of organization, support, and administration, as between the different states, and that as the result of this long popular

evolution, influenst so materially by the individualistic thinking of our people, conditions of organization and administration that are by no means ideal obtain in various states.

Briefly stated there are in existence three distinct types of organization: (1) the district, (2) the town or township, and (3) the county. As this paper claims the county system to be far superior for administrative purposes, it will first undertake to sketch briefly the main outlines of the other two and attempt to show that both are out of touch with the drift of administrative practice in the domain of education.

I believe that the school district is today the greatest anomaly in American public education. It had its place and its use historically considered in American growth and a great purpose in the evolutionary processes of the upbuilding of this great nation, but today "it is a democracy gone to seed, a worthless inheritance from Massachusetts," long discarded by her and, as one of her most distinguisht sons has said, "the greatest blunder in the whole history of educational legislation." Superintendent Cassidy speaks of the system as follows:

> Because of the absence of a central controlling body, such as a county board of education, and the responsibility consequent to such a body the schoolhouses are the merest sheds; equipments are makeshifts or are wholly lacking; there are perhaps six months of learning and certainly six of forgetting; the selection of teachers is in the hands of men who have little or no conception of what a teacher should be; competency and teaching ability do not assure stability of position; and supplementary aid is regarded as extortion.

The second or township system is an improved modification of the former. It insures centralization of management, consolidation of equipment, resources, and facilities, less expense, and more efficiency. Its chief result is to better the conditions of education for the community. Under this system, when carried to its ultimate conclusion, the township will constitute one district with one board of education, a central high school, and as many primary or ward schools as are needed at properly located points in the township and all under expert supervision both pedagogically and financially. This system also guarantees the services of a higher order of school trustees, since the increast responsibility under the township plan leads the people themselves to be more particular with respect to the professional interest and intelligence of the men selected for these positions.

The third or county system of school organization had its origin in the states south of the Mason and Dixon line. Here the district system could not thrive in the early days, since plantations were large and homes far apart; the colored population was not an educational factor, and the children of the whites could afford tutors or private schools. The county therefore became the civil unit and the county seat the center of the political life of the people. When the public school became a necessity its control in view of the absence of districts, in part at least, was placed under the care of a central board with more or less general power to administer

thruout the county. This system has developt variously in the several southern states.

In recent years Maryland has been one of the foremost in the passage of social and industrial laws, and it has been the crowning act of this state to place on its statute books the most comprehensive and ideal educational administrative law in the United States without compromise or limitation. This educational code adopts the county as the unit of organization, but subjects the county organization to the control of the state board of education, whose executive officer is the state superintendent of schools.

Maryland has always had a county organization of its school system, but the system failed to secure the full benefits of such an adaptation because there was not complete coordination between the working parts.

After a survey of the state by the general education board and a report of its findings, the legislature in 1916 past a law correcting the abuses of the system, consolidated great power in the hands of the state superintendent, and only a little less in that of the county superintendent, at the same time freeing them from the dictation and interference of local politics, making the boards of education non-partisan and consolidating the power of school administration entirely in the hands of the superintendent and the board of education, thus removing the last remnant of the old district system from the state of Maryland.

Ideally the general purpose to be served by a county board of education is to assist the county superintendent in carrying out his educational policies and in the performance of the work necessary to operate the general educational system of the state. It can approve or disapprove rather than initiate legislation. This thorogoing county organization of the school system of Maryland is all but unique, and offers splendid possibilities to the educational leader. It is common in all sections of this country for the urban communities to have separate school systems, each under its own administrative and supervising officers. As a result of this the county superintendent is usually little more than an executive clerk with merely nominal supervision over a few small districts, or he is perhaps in charge of a purely rural community which is unable to do much for itself. It is easy to see then why relative feebleness and inefficiency should exist in a large proportion of school systems outside of cities of at least moderate size, and why ordinarily the drift of the more efficient professional people is toward the cities. Yet the education of these village and rural communities is a matter of vital importance from every point of view, a prime factor in the much discust problem of rural life.

Now in Maryland the county-unit system of organization provides the strength of union. By uniting in one system all the rural and urban communities of a large county ranging from rural districts and small villages to cities of 10,000 to 40,000 inhabitants, public education rests upon a vastly stronger basis financially and socially. It becomes possible to provide

for each of these communities expert professional service much beyond what it could pay for alone. Thus it becomes possible to extend to the country child the exceptional opportunities enjoyed by the city child, to develop urban organization and efficiency in rural districts, and to give assistance where assistance is most needed. The flexibility and elasticity of a city organization becomes readily adaptable to the rural communities when the county is the unit of organization. In the distribution of funds no regard need be paid to the amount raised by any district or ward, but the total fund in hand is distributed according to the necessities of the community determined by the number of children to be educated. The same salary schedule, the same degree of efficiency in supervision, the same expert assistance, the same courses of professional reading, the same course of study, textbooks, and supplies, the same length of school terms, are provided for the country as for the town or city schools.

In all lines of human effort the tendency is strongly toward combination and centralization to the end that more effective work may be done and details more definitely planned and executed. In the county superintendency we have the beginnings of a complete and effective system of organization. The county division existing in all states lends itself to the elimination of politics, to efficiency, to equal opportunity for all, to expert supervision and control, to elimination of petty neighborhood dissensions, and to a far more efficienct means of directing public sentiment to better ends. This ideal system has been adopted by the state of Maryland, and is now in process of inauguration. Prominent features of the law are:

1. A distribution of the state school fund to each county based upon the average attendance.
2. The power of the board of education to compel the county authorities to levy for school purposes up to a maximum rate on each hundred dollars of taxable property.
3. A compulsory attendance for all children from seven to sixteen.
4. Certification of teachers by uniform state examination and certificates issued by state superintendent.
5. A school census.
6. Provision for adequate school supervising forces.
7. Minimum qualification for teachers, and minimum salary schedule for all grades.
8. A minimum length of school term of nine months.
9. State regulation of courses of study, of approved high schools, and of plans and construction of buildings and improvements.
10. A county budget.

The qualifications, duties, and powers of the county superintendent are interesting under this law. He must be especially trained for the work; he must be a college graduate with postgraduate preparation in administration and supervision in a recognized university, and he can be eligible to the appointment then only after he receives a certificate from the state superintendent of schools. He must devote his full time exclusively to the duties of his office and see that the school laws, the by-laws and policies of

the state board of education, and the rules and regulations of the county board are carried into effect.

He must also visit all schools several times a year and supervise and direct the work in the schools either directly or thru the supervisors. He must organize and direct teachers' training classes and conferences, local institutes for teachers and citizens, reading centers, and take a leading interest in the educational uplift movements of his county.

The superintendent also has direct control over the whole system, issues all certificates to teach and supervise, passes on all building plans, interprets the school law, and is the final court of appeal in disputed cases that arise in administration.

This law has now been in effect nearly two years, and while there is more or less agreement that a few minor changes might be advantageously made there is a nearly universal unanimity thruout the state of Maryland that the new law has past thru its experimental stage and the possibilities of a county-unit system have been recognized and utilized to their full capacity, and the public generally has come to feel that this state has taken a step forward in the educational field. The adaptations of the county unit in Maryland to educational administration is an upward step in the evolution of a democracy in its attempt to adjust itself to proper growth and progress.

RURAL SCHOOL AS A SOCIAL CENTER

MRS. THOMAS W. HAYES, COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ROSWELL, N.M.

For several years there has been a growing conviction among the citizens of our great country that the general welfare of its citizenship bears a direct ratio to its educational progress. The increase in general interest in every phase of public education for the past ten years especially has been marvelous and the substantial progress in all phases of educational endeavor has been phenomenal.

While the advancement being made is very encouraging the ideal has not been attained, and will not or cannot be attained until the public school is so developt, organized, and administered that it will be able to train all the children and all the people of the community. Here we probably find the beginning of the important movement in American education—the effort to continue school instruction thruout the entire life of the citizen.

To make the educational system more efficient has been a stupendous task. The Department of the Interior thru its Bureau of Education is waging a nation-wide campaign for better rural schools and for the improvement of rural life. There seems to be a unanimity of opinion that something should be done to solve this rural problem. Observant students of education have differed as to the policies or solutions suggested, but wholly agree

upon the essentials. All are agreed that one urgent need in developing an efficient system is increast financial support; while many believe that trained teachers, standards and requirements with reference to school buildings, grounds and equipment, attendance of pupils, medical inspection, longer terms, consolidation, good roads, and many other matters which time forbids mentioning, are necessary.

This brings me to that phase of my subject of rural community advancement which deals with the rural school as a social center.

Within the twenty minutes allotted each speaker I cannot hope to do more than barely refer to the many excellent results brought about by the community-center movement and shall have to confine myself to the educational and social phases of this vital educational movement of the present-day rural school. This movement must concern itself with translating the work of the school into the language of the home and the community thru the agency of the rural school. The twentieth-century rural school must be properly organized as an efficient unit in the economic plan for rural betterment so that its effect shall be emphatically exprest in terms of better-prepared and happier citizens in the country with an education which they can use, not alone for profit, but for pleasure.

Along with the home, church, and state—the primary social and economic elements—the school has taken its place as the most potent factor, and the rural school is one of the most promising fields in which to make social and economic work effective. It has the vantage-ground on account of being the common meeting-place of the community where all are considered upon an equal basis from the standpoint of democratic principles, right, and justice.

American people demand social life, and you know the conditions of our rural life in many cases. Hard work and the struggle for existence crowd out social life. The young people have few, if any, social relations. They leave the farm because they believe that the conception which lies behind it is forever opposed and uncongenial to the spirit of youth, for to that spirit life is the ever-paramount feature. The people are not brought together frequently enough to establish that sympathy and love so necessary to overcome those petty jealousies which creep into the community life. Farmers have abandoned their farms and agricultural progress has failed to keep pace with growth in population and with progress in other industries because the rural school has heretofore failed to determine and meet the educational and social needs of the rural people. But we hail with great pleasure the dawning of the new day in the life of the rural school and the rural community; and today we are realizing as never before that the time is past when the schoolhouse was intended merely for children, and we see it fast becoming the most important center in the entire community. Truly the school has become the social opportunity of the centuries, and we seize the occasion to transform this work which makes one of the big

units of the greatest of all works, the uplifting of humanity and the betterment of mankind.

The rural school should and is making determined efforts to have the entire community look to it for the source of all community entertainment. The schoolhouse should countenance every reputable form of entertainment that will give a great uplift to its people. Citizens will not tolerate in a schoolhouse what they would allow without protest in another place. This coming together, this decidedly modern tendency is undoubtedly causing profound changes in the society of our rural American people; this coming together at evening entertainments of an educational as well as of a social nature induces the young people to expend their surplus energy in a becoming manner, makes society more democratic, and deals a deathblow to many secret dens of vice.

Social unity is the prerequisite of social regeneration, and the surest way to effect a social transformation is to realize the actual cooperation between the home and the school. In my opinion the Parent-Teachers Association has marvelously contributed to the educational and social unification of community spirit and welfare in the great and varied avenues of its service. It has brought about a closer relation between the home and school and has embraced different types of activities—educational, social, and civic.

The "teacherage" has contributed largely toward the expansion of community social and educational life in the rural school. The "teacherage" exerts that inviting and welcoming influence over the community that the old fashioned hard-fast-by-the-church manse did in days past. The very presence of the teacher's home on the school grounds invites and creates a community spirit for advanst social and economic measures, and incites and stimulates the desire for better schools.

We could not pass without giving due praise to the moving-picture machine for its generous share in the enlargement of the social-center movement of our rural schools. It has been truly said that the moving picture gives to all the opportunity to witness great events and to be conversant with all countries and all occupations. It is the most effective way of teaching geography, industry, history, much of literature, and much of science, and proves an educational institution to parent and child alike.

The opportunities and demands for service which these times of world-war bring to the door of the schools of our country constitute a burning challenge which must be met. Hundreds of thousands of men, women, and children have been converted to a belief in service. War has taught us to cooperate. We have workt together zealously in conserving food and fuel, knitting socks for the sailors, knitting sweaters and packing kits for soldiers, buying Liberty Bonds for humanity's sake. Indeed we see stampt upon the heart of every true American citizen the great, wonderful Red Cross. Those of us behind the lines must cooperate to the point of sacrifice to reclaim the

wounded and fallen, care for those who continue in service, and prepare those in our keeping for an enlightened intellectual reconstruction when this world-conflict has ended. Indeed we are just learning our first wonderful lesson in community interest. While I supervise schools, attend office duties, consolidate districts, erect new schoolhouses, repair old schoolhouses, urge better school and playground equipment, yet I believe the most truly uplifting, elevating, and far-reaching work is the community-center work for the rural schools.

Permit me to leave with you this: We have never before enjoyed so splendid an opportunity to perform a lasting service as the one now presenting itself to us and that is the social-center work of the rural schools, which are the greatest socializing and Americanizing agency in the country today.

C. CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH POPULATION OVER 250,000

FINANCING THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

E. C. HARTWELL, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ST. PAUL, MINN.

Someone has said that there are three essentials to carrying on war. The first is money, the second is money, and the third is still more money. However widely the problems of our respective school systems may differ, we all have one common problem which at this time is especially difficult, namely, that of adequately meeting our current needs and making provision for the expansion which the growth of our cities makes imperative. The American people have too long prided themselves on an imaginary generosity toward education. Education has been largely a local matter, and there is scarcely a city in the United States today where the schoolhouses are able adequately to accommodate the enrolment. In those states where funds for the encouragement of education are administered thru state agencies there is a constant conflict being waged to keep the school funds intact and free from the greedy clutches of political agencies which desire to use the money for other purposes. The national government has spent little money in the encouragement of education. The Smith-Hughes bill is the first act of our national government under which financial assistance is given to the cause of education, and while I say "Three cheers for the bill, and all honor to the men who persuaded Congress to take this first magnificent forward step," the money which will ultimately be spent under the provisions of the bill is pitifully small compared with the sums spent by the federal government for other and less important purposes. A nation that pays its school teachers an average wage less than that paid the

street sweepers of New York City can hardly be said to have an exaggerated appreciation of the value of the teachers' services.

Nearly every one of us here today is faced with the problem of securing sufficient money to operate efficiently those activities which already have been undertaken. But our systems must expand—our cities are growing and we are constantly askt to enlarge the scope of the school's activities. This war has clearly demonstrated that in certain particulars our school systems are lamentably inadequate. It has shown, for instance, how much needs to be done for physical education. It has demonstrated that the education of the foreigner must have in the future a much larger share of our attention. It has proved beyond the peradventure of a doubt that vocational education must be undertaken in our cities, not as a basement annex or side-show addition, but as an integral part of our educational policy. Most of us undoubtedly appreciate the necessity of meeting these and other responsibilities, but when the cost of operating our school systems as they now stand shows a percentage of increase more than twice as large as the increase in the source of revenue it may well give pause to all those who have charge, either professionally or financially, of American public schools. Personally I believe that inasmuch as education has clearly come to be vested with a national interest the federal government should liberally subsidize our local communities in meeting some of these educational problems. It is my profound conviction that if the federal government had spent on physical and vocational education in the last ten years only a small percentage of what it has wasted on useless river and harbor improvements we should not now be in the situation in which we find ourselves. If the federal government twenty-five years ago had begun to spend on the education of the adult foreigner only 1 per cent of the money which it has spent in superfluous and extravagant post-office buildings we should never have been faced with the problem of the "Hun within our gates." I believe it is unfair to ask local communities to bear the entire burden of a problem which is state and national. Be that as it may, as Grover Cleveland said, "We are confronted with a condition, and not a theory." The problem with which we are faced is that of adequately financing, out of local taxation, the operation of the public schools. The public schools in any community constitute a large business corporation in which the people are the stockholders. It is our duty as superintendents to explain to these stockholders why the cost of public education is constantly increasing. And the discharge of this very duty constitutes a large problem in itself. The printing of annual reports has practically no effect on public sentiment. Educating the public to the financial needs of the school is a herculean task. It is a task which ought to be undertaken only when we can accompany a statement of our needs with a constructive, definite program of how we propose to spend the additional money which the public is askt to contribute.

This program has been prepared with the idea of discussing these various problems in a series of short addresses. It is hoped that the meeting may become a clearing-house of helpful and constructive suggestions so that we may all take back to our respective cities something which will assist us in meeting our local problems.

WHY THE COST OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IS CONSTANTLY INCREASING

JOHN D. SHOOP, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CHICAGO, ILL.

In a brief discussion of the question of public-school revenues as they affect the educational interests of the larger cities we can touch upon only one or two phases of current conditions which may indicate the trend and scope of the movements that are in advance of adequate financial provisions.

The added expense incident to a richer and more comprehensive curriculum, the shifting of phases of training from the home to the school, the larger equipment which the principles and methods of modern realistic education demand, the improved physical conditions which are necessary for the conservation of the health of the children, and the maintenance of supplementary, corrective, and special schools combine to augment the outlay necessary for the maintenance of a modern educational system.

Again we have not yet compast the field which public judgment is including within the domain of education. There are earnest and persistent calls for a wider range of the activities of public instruction. The flocking of our immigrant population into neighborhoods so defined and isolated that the language, customs, and traditions of the parent country are preserved for at least a generation, creates a condition that must enlarge the mission of education, and calls for remedial agencies that will keep the fires burning beneath the melting-pot until our motto, "E Pluribus Unum," which had its origin in a necessity for *political* union, shall be alike applicable in the discovery of the social common denominator that will make possible a closer and more complete blending of all social elements now characterized by racial distinctions.

Adult schools must lend their influence and opportunities to the task. The end must be a common language—the forerunner and basal factor of a homogeneous citizenship. We turn to biblical lore for the time-honored illustration of the helplessness of the builders when there was confusion among the workmen. The same results must follow with greater certainty when the structure is that of the state instead of the tower whose materials are the baser elements. American security is conditioned upon the solidarity of American citizenship, which in turn must look to the field of education for the development of the social process that is to assemble the whole in ideal and balanst relations. This end will not be attained

until the intelligence, the hopes, the aspirations, and the emotions of the people find expression in a language common to all, the language of the American court, which, interpreted in terms of democracy, means the common people.

The educational responsibility of the centers of population of our country is increasing with a rapidity that challenges the genius of those whose mission it is to maintain the economic poise of the social order. The necessity for the modification of the ratio of urban to rural population must appeal in seriousness and in significance to the educator as well as to the economist. The cry of "Back to the soil" is born of necessity rather than of sentiment. The test of the extraordinary conditions into which the war of the nations has carried us indicates only too plainly the inadequacy of the reserve in our supply of common necessities. The unbalanst condition is not to be explained alone by the demands of war. The full dinner pail is no longer a political slogan. Cold, stubborn facts which indicate in statistical columns a disturbance of the equilibrium of production and consumption speak eloquently and convincingly of our economic situation. The remedy is not to be found in legislation. The diagnosis must be placed in the hands of the educator, whose business it is to provide the remedy. The problem is no longer peculiar to rural schools. The city must shoulder its responsibility. The antidote for the gregarious instinct out of which has grown the over-population of the urban center is the inoculation of the city boy with the agricultural germ. Our departments of vocational guidance, when intelligently organized, will discover among the throngs of those who are seeking advice as to a life-calling thousands who by natural inclination would find their happiest employment in the activities of rural life. The coming years will witness the introduction of agricultural courses in our city schools, and the public will not fail to provide for their support.

The advent of international strife and the entering of the American nation into this world-wide controversy are reacting forcibly on educational thought, and today we are scanning the horizon for the first gleam of intelligence that will throw its light upon the path of duty. To those whose keener vision penetrates the cloud of battle a subsequent field of conflict is revealed. When the dove of peace once more hovers over the ensigns of the militant forces of the world it will witness again the alignment of nations in battles for supremacy in the markets of the world. The future of our country as it relates to her industrial and commercial interests will be cast in the balance whose poise and counterpoise will be determined by the contribution which education may offer to the process of preparation. Lack of preparedness for that new era in the history of the world would indeed be a national calamity.

It is the business of education to map out the roadway for training toward that technical skill and higher constructive efficiency that will arm our human power for future service. It is the business of eduon toatic

herald the dawn of the new era of commercial and industrial reconstruction and to prepare the drawings from which structures commensurate with future needs are to be reared. It is the business of education to proclaim to the people that the ability, the poise, the virility, and the efficient human power necessary to master the education problems of this new era can be secured only by paying the price thereof in the brawn and brain markets of the world.

With an ever-increasing hope I have lookt longingly forward to the day when our public schools and the profession of teaching shall, in their management and in their financial policies, be guided by the rules and principles of legitimate business enterprise; to the day when sane ambitions for achievement need not turn aside from the field of education to realize on the ideals which have appeared for them above the horizon of life; to the day when the vocation, the calling, of teaching shall rise in the scale of values to a point where it will be overshadowed by no imposing position in trade, industry, or profession; to the day when the molding of life shall rise in public recognition and in material compensation at least to the level of the importance and dignity of skill in the practical arts.

To attain this end there must be inaugurated a campaign of "education in education"—a creative and reconstructive policy that will level the walls of tradition, unloose the bands of outgrown and antiquated custom, and face confidently the public with a service that has marketable value second to none in the competitive marts of the world.

With a progressive educational scheme that would relate the schools vitally to the activities of life, with coordination and cooperation with the supplemental agencies in commerce and industry that are lending their aid to the process of readjustment of the educational program in the interest of economy and efficiency, we are confidently assured that the purse strings of an appreciative public will be loosened and that public education will gather its reward from a grateful and an appreciative people.

EDUCATING THE PUBLIC TO THE FINANCIAL NEEDS OF THE SCHOOL

GEORGE DRAYTON STRAYER, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N.Y.

There are two problems involved in educating the public to the financial needs of the school system. The first has to do with convincing the voters that the schools are not able, with their present measure of financial support, to provide the facilities which are necessary for the adequate education of the children of the community. The second involves an analysis of the fiscal problem in such a way as to persuade the voters that they have the ability to pay for the improvements which are contemplated.

In any attempt to convince the public that schools must be improved it is necessary to describe with as great precision as possible the present inadequacies of the school system and to suggest a definite program for its improvement. During the past year the writer had an opportunity to inquire concerning the school facilities available in two cities of considerable size—St. Paul and Omaha. In each of these communities there were those who knew something of the inadequacy of the school plant. When the whole situation was presented, with an analysis which made clear the relative degree of efficiency of the plant as it existed, many people were interested and were willing to vote in support of a program for improving the situation who had on previous occasions been unwilling to support such a movement. When it is shown, for example, by a careful scoring of school buildings that more than half of them are less than 25 per cent efficient in fire protection, all citizens who have children in the schools become interested in the necessity for improvement. If it can be shown as was the case in two of the cities, that approximately half of the school buildings have less than a 50 per cent efficient heating and ventilating system, one may even argue, with some hope of carrying conviction, for the abandonment of some of the poorer buildings.

In each of the school-building surveys which I have undertaken buildings have been found which, on the basis of ranking a perfect building one thousand points, fall below five hundred, and certain buildings have been found which rated between three and five hundred points on the thousand-point scale. This rating, together with an analysis of the many deficiencies which bring about so low a percentage of efficiency, seemingly carries conviction concerning the needs of the school system which is not always the case when one speaks of poor or inadequate buildings which should be replaced.

In like manner an analysis of the opportunities offered in schools, or rather the lack of opportunities, may help to convince the public of the need of more money for the support of public education. It can be shown, for example, that the only satisfactory method of meeting the demand for differentiated courses of study for the children of the upper grades of the elementary school is thru the establishment of intermediate schools or six-year high schools. It can be made clear that to provide in all elementary schools the equipment in the household and industrial arts which would give the sort of prevocational training which children want and need would be very much more expensive than to establish a system of intermediate schools. It is obvious, when the facts are presented, that children are retarded in our school systems in large numbers, and that they cannot be expected to profit largely by the courses of study which are provided in the traditional upper grades of the elementary school. It can be establisht just as clearly that there are children who, on account of their superior ability, may do in five years instead of six work now commonly assigned

to the last two grades of the elementary school and the high school. When these facts are made available and the program for the establishment of the intermediate school is presented in connection with them, it has been found possible in many communities to secure support for the establishment of the new type of school.

It is not difficult to show by careful examination of the attendance service the degree of efficiency that is achieved by this part of the school administration. When inefficiency is discovered it is almost always accompanied by a lack of support and an inadequate staff in the attendance department. Most people will accept the fact that the enforcement of the compulsory-education law is essential in any attempt to provide an adequate scheme of public education. When it is shown clearly that the attendance department lacks the staff and equipment necessary for making it effective, a long step has been made in the direction of securing adequate support.

An examination of the health service provided for public schools will show in one case a recording of defects with little or no action for their removal or for the improvement of the health of school children. An analysis of the situation in another city will discover the fact that health service of the sort that remedies defects and gets results costs many times more than the medical inspection provided in the other city. When one has available facts concerning the type of service rendered it is not difficult to argue for a support which may cost, instead of fifteen or twenty cents, a dollar per pupil. Departments of educational research can be justified and financial support sought for them to best advantage by pointing out the need for such careful analyses of the work of the school system as have been made by these bureaus in the cities which have already establisht them.

In like manner the relative amount of money invested in supervision by other school systems or by commercial or industrial enterprises may serve, not only to establish the need, but to justify as well the expenditure which will be involved in providing adequate supervision. The public is not greatly imprest with the demand for more money for the schools. It can be induced to see specific needs when they are made as clear and definite as possible. The particular needs of the school system and the benefits which may be expected to accrue to the children form the only adequate basis for asking for increast support for public education.

The second question concerning the ability of the community to pay involves a consideration of the wealth of the community, of its rate of taxation based upon real wealth, of the investment which has been made over a period of years for buildings and equipment, and the like. In the surveys which I have undertaken for the purpose of demonstrating the necessity of providing funds for the development of a more adequate school plant it has seemed wise to compare cities of approximately the same size with respect to their support of public education and to suggest

the possibility of more generous support in the light of the amount of money spent in other communities.

In the St. Paul survey it appeared that this city, as compared with those nearest to it in size, had the lowest tax rate per thousand dollars of estimated real value of property and that there were cities that were paying from two to three times as much on a thousand dollars. It appeared as well that while other cities had spent, from 1899 to 1915, in the development of their school plants as much as from twenty to thirty-five dollars per capita, St. Paul had spent only seven dollars and nine cents per capita. It was also shown that the percentage of the total money spent for city maintenance which was expended for schools was lower in this community than in many others comparable to it. Contrasts of this sort can be made in support of the plea for more liberal financial support of schools in those communities which have given less adequate support. The argument in favor of more generous support in the communities which lead will, of course, have to be based upon the willingness of the community to pay more money for superior education.

At the present moment one of the greatest needs in all our school systems is for more adequate salaries for teachers. Thruout the country young men and women are hesitating to enter normal schools or teacher-training classes. The enrolment in these institutions has dropt anywhere from 10 to 40 per cent. Those already at work in the schools have, in large numbers, left the profession on account of the more adequate opportunity offered in industrial or commercial life. The very salvation of our public school system depends upon the paying of salaries adequate to attract and to retain in the teaching profession our best young men and women—those who are most competent to hand on to the children the ideals in which we believe and to teach them to appreciate the institutions which are peculiar to our democratic society. In this case, as in the others which have been mentioned, the community can be made to recognize its obligation only when all the facts are presented. Here too there is a distinct advantage in holding up for consideration those communities which pay more adequate salaries and which are able to maintain a higher standard of preparation for those who would teach in their schools.

Those who are responsible for voting support for our schools will grant increast support only when they are convinst that the investment which they are askt to make is a good one. The process of educating the public to the needs of the school system is not unlike the process of education in any other field. The more facts we can present, the more definite and precise we can be with respect to the needs of the school system, the more weight we shall have with our public. We shall be wise if we add to our statement of needs an analysis of the fiscal problem which will make it clear that the community can, without unduly burdening itself, afford to pay for the improvements which are necessary.

EFFICIENT FINANCE FOR THE CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM

FRANK W. BALLOU, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BOSTON, MASS.

Recently in a small gathering of educators the subject of financing education was under consideration. One of those present, whose position and professional standing command respect for his views, exprest himself as believing that the subject of financial economy in education was not worthy of the consideration of educators. He argued that it is the business of educators to get and to spend as much money as possible for education. He defended his position on the ground that it is impossible to spend too much money for educational purposes.

I believe that this is both an indefensible and a dangerous theory. It is a dangerous theory since it implies that, because of the nature of the undertaking, an educator should not be held responsible for an economic expenditure of the funds provided for educational purposes. Men in the educational profession have always been peculiarly free from any imputations of profiting dishonestly by reason of the educational positions which they hold. However, their responsibility for a judicious and economic expenditure of school funds is as great as their moral responsibility for spending school money honestly. Every public official is morally bound to expend money so that it will best serve the purpose for which the public provided it. To this principle the educator should be no exception.

Efficient finance in a city school system depends (1) on the appropriation of a reasonable amount of money for the needs of the schools, and (2) on a rational plan for its distribution to serve those needs. A reasonable amount of money can best be secured thru a fixt tax rate, with the board of education possessing, within limitations, the tax-levying power. A rational distribution of money depends on an effective system of budget-making.

1. *The appropriation of a reasonable amount of money for the schools.*— The constitutions of the several states of the Union charge their respective state legislatures with the responsibility of maintaining systems of public education. Public education is a state function. The administration of education by a local school committee or board of education does not alter that fact. The board of education acts as an agent of the state as well as a local agent. Logically and legally, therefore, the state legislature may fix the tax rate and thereby determine the amount of money to be provided for school purposes for any city. Not only should the legislature fix the minimum and maximum limits of the tax rate, but the board of education should also be given the authority to appropriate and levy within those limits the amount of money necessary for educational purposes. The board of education, rather than any department of the city government, should possess the tax-levying authority for school purposes, because the

board is organized for the purpose of providing public education and is more cognizant of the needs of the schools than is any city department. The administrative agency which controls the appropriations in the school budget also by that fact determines the educational possibilities of the school system. That agency should be the board of education. There are three advantages in this arrangement: (1) it keeps school finances out of politics; (2) it increases annually the amount of money appropriated for school purposes as the assest valuation increases; and (3) it makes possible the carrying out of a systematic educational policy over a period of years.

2. *A rational plan for the distribution of money for the schools.*—Having discust the need of a fixt tax rate as a means of securing a reasonable amount of money for educational purposes in a city school system, let us now turn our attention to the other aspect of efficient financing, viz., the preparation of a school budget according to which the available money is to be spent. I shall discuss what appear to me to be five conditions of efficient budget-making.

a) The first condition of successful budget-making is knowledge on the part of those who make the budget of the amount of money available for school purposes during the financial year for which the budget is to be made. In conducting one's personal business successfully one decides on his expenditures in relation to his income. So in making a school budget the amount of money which can or should legitimately be spent for the several activities of a school system depends directly on the amount of money available. With a fixt tax rate this condition of successful budget-making is satisfied.

b) The second condition of effective budget-making is the general recognition that making a school budget is primarily an educational function and as such should be supervised and directed by educators. It is relatively immaterial who actually compiles the budget, or who makes the original estimates. It is, however, of fundamental importance that the estimates should be prepared according to the educational policies of the superintendent's office, and that the eliminations and reductions should not be made by those who may or may not be familiar with the effect which such eliminations and reductions may have on the educational activities of the school system.

c) The third condition of successful budget-making is an amount of time for making the estimates commensurate with the difficulty of the problem and the importance of public education. In Boston the Department of Educational Investigation and Measurement was askt to make a study of the system of budget-making. It proposed that more time be secured for making a school budget by estimating in advance the amount of money likely to be available from taxation, from income, and from unexpended balances, and proceeding at once with the preparation of a

tentative budget. This is not the proper occasion for discussing in detail the statistical methods by which the department showed that such estimates could be made. It is important, however, to describe briefly the problem involved and to indicate the results secured by applying the statistical method.

In Boston, while the money available for school purposes comes from taxation, from income, and from unexpended balances, more than 96 per cent of the total amount available comes from taxation. A statistical method of making estimates of money available from taxation was workt out and applied to the twelve years from 1905 to 1916. In each case the estimate of the amount of money available from taxation was within $10,000 of the actual amount. In three cases it was within $1000 of the actual sum available. In the nearest case there was a difference of only $228.21 in the amount of money actually available and the estimate of the money that would be available. In eight out of the twelve years, or in 75 per cent of the cases, the estimate was within $3000 of the actual figures. When one considers how relatively small these differences are in the budget of over $6,000,000, it is clear that the results from the application of this statistical method are sufficiently close to the actual amounts available to make the method reliable for this purpose. Because the estimates of gross income can be made in advance, Boston now begins the preparation of a tentative budget on December 1. When the actual amounts of money are later known the preliminary estimates are corrected.

d) The fourth condition of successful budget-making is a clear definition of the authority and responsibility of those who make budgetary estimates. Under favorable conditions the absence of clearly defined authority may not cause trouble. On the other hand, during times of stress the absence of such well-defined duties and responsibilities may prove a calamity.

e) The fifth condition of successful budget-making is knowledge on the part of those who make the budget of the annual costs of the several school activities over a period of years. In order that knowledge of the amount of money expended in previous years may be utilized in budget-making, there must be (1) a detailed system of accounting intimately related to the appropriation items in the budget, and (2) an adequate plan for disseminating this financial information by the business office among those who make budget estimates.

Differentiation of functions in order to fix official responsibility and to increase efficiency is undoubtedly sound administrative practice. Nevertheless the centralization in one office of all business matters relating to education has undoubtedly tended to promote the feeling that educators should not concern themselves with educational finances. More important than this, it has also tended to make it difficult, if not impossible, for anyone in the school service to keep himself adequately informed on educational

costs. In most cities the only participation one has in financial matters is to write his requisition and to forward it to the business or purchasing agent. He never knows how much expenditure his requisition entailed, for he never sees the bill. To be sure, at the end of the financial year a report is issued, but the expenditures of a school or department, or of any activity, are so generalized and summarized that for the most part the report furnishes inadequate information concerning detailed costs. By segregating the business matters into one office or department financial information necessary to the educational offices has been taken away. For effective administration of the superintendent's office this knowledge must be restored.

When the school budget reaches the school committee it should be a well-balanst, detailed, statistical analysis of the estimated expenditures for the next financial year. Such a budget can only be prepared in relation to the annual expenditures of preceding years and in consideration of the extensions contemplated in the general educational policy of the school system. When considering budget estimates the superintendent needs to have before him a statement of annual expenditures for various educational activities over a period of years, in order that he may distinguish among the estimates furnisht him those that are necessary, those that are desirable, and those that are clearly for extension of activities. Appropriations would naturally be made to satisfy these estimates, in order named, and the appropriations for extensions of activities should not be made until the necessary and desirable expenditures for all present activities have been largely, if not wholly, provided for. With a detailed statement of expenditures before him the superintendent has a comparatively reliable fact basis on which to judge the trustworthiness and justification of the estimates of his subordinates, and also has a fair basis for approving, reducing, eliminating, or increasing those estimates.

If budget estimates are to represent adequately the amount of money needed they must be based on facts and not on fancies. The most reliable fact basis is that furnisht in an adequate system of accounting. If the information contained in the accounts is to be available it must be made accessible thru some plan which shall be recognized as an integral part of the system of making a school budget.

DISCUSSION

Albert Shiels, superintendent of schools, Los Angeles, Cal.—Concerning Mr. Ballou's decision on the advisability of a uniform source of revenue unaffected by the vicissitudes of political interest there can be no dissent. His five principles in budget-making permit neither question nor criticism. Therefore I shall endeavor only to supplement his contribution by reference to other aspects of city financing which the time at his disposal did not permit him to consider.

School expenditures may be considered in a variety of ways. There are, however, two principal accounts from which all others are derived: (1) expenditures for permanency

which include provision for site for buildings and for permanent equipment; and (2) expenditures for annual outlays, which include provisions for supervision, instruction, supplies, and repairs.

1. *Expenditures for permanency.*—If we could determine and apportion these expenditures annually, then sites could be purchast and buildings erected and equipt out of each year's income precisely as salaries or supplies are now provided for. The annual income from taxes, however, is rarely used to cover cost of sites and buildings. This is logical, inasmuch as neither a building nor a site is "consumed" in a single year, but thru a long series of years. Therefore the cost should be extended over a series of years. Moreover, the usual annual tax yields could scarcely provide for these things, so recourse is had to bond issues.

When the accumulated bond debt is not heavy there is a great temptation toward careless expenditures. It is so fascinating, this method of getting money just by voting for it! But easy voting sometimes means hard paying. Bond issues have an uncanny way of growing while we sleep. When the awakening comes, it is very sudden. The public discovers that the interest itself has become too heavy, heavy enough to make a respectable income for sites and buildings of itself; or the last voted issue can be marketed only at a high rate of interest because there have been too many others; or the city is near its debt limit. Then comes the unreasoning panic. The public will vote for nothing, and there is a new kind of waste even worse than that of extravagance. The same public that was so quick to vote bonds and the same newspapers that had always supported favorable action join the great chorus of protest. A city that but a little time before was building palatial structures now refuses to provide even meager school accommodations. Part time, crowded classes, frame additions, and the other long train of school troubles follow thick upon one another. In all the tiresome and fruitless game of criticism and recrimination the bond interest charges go silently but remorselessly on, yielding nothing to sites nor buildings, piling up the tax rate, and making affairs yet worse confounded year by year.

Whether there is an abundance of bond money in reserve or whether the time of panic has come, there are three things which sooner or later must be done: one is to fix a policy the second is to provide a means of carrying it out, and the third is to tell the public the facts. The policy should be: that sites should be selected, not as sudden necessities require, but on a definite extension of a period of years; that some buildings should not be so extravagantly constructed as to prevent decent accommodations in other and usually less fortunate parts of the city; that the administration should utilize existing conditions by insistence upon small classes, but should ameliorate these conditions by having such transfers and reorganizations made as will get the most out of the existing facilities.

American cities today are suffering because when land was cheap educational authorities had no conception of the standard site. They bought small plots, or poorly placed plots, sometimes as bargains and sometimes because there was no vision.

2. *Expenditures for annual outlays.*—Among all the things that may be said concerning the important problem of annual expenditures three things deserve consideration. The first is the need of standardizing equipment, supplies, and the total ratio of teachers to the whole school attendance, tho this of course involves a departure from the standard ratio in each individual case.

The second thing is to observe the comparative costs thru a series of years. If, for example, it is shown that for almost no greater number of pupils there is a considerable increase in per capita cost the school administration must be prepared to show that there is a good reason for this condition. Nothing should be left to luck.

The third thing is a correct notion of the meaning of school experimentation in education. Education is improving constantly, but that does not relieve supervising authorities from trying out what they propose to introduce in a reasonable way. Before an experiment is establisht it should be the duty of an administrator (*a*) to state precisely the object in mind; (*b*) to state the method by which he proposes to carry it on; (*c*) to show how he

proposes to check the experiment by indicating his method of discovering whether the values expected will be yielded; (*d*) to indicate precisely what the cost of the experiment will be; (*e*) in case the experiment should prove successful, to indicate what it ought to cost when generally extended thruout the city. Too many American cities have surviving types of organization started doubtless for some good reason not now apparent, without any history of their successes or failures. They continue only as traditions or thru inertia.

The real object of an experiment is, not economy only, but a discovery of values before extensions. This ought reasonably to be expected of any competent person. I do not believe that it is the business of the school superintendent to find how cheaply an educational system can be administered. But it is his business to abolish waste and to get a maximum dividend for every cent he expends. It is not evidence that educational dividends are being obtained merely by affirming that they are obtained. We must remember that in education as in every other phase of human effort responsibility lies upon us, not merely to affirm excellence, but to give some evidence that excellence has been attained.

D. CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH POPULATION BETWEEN 25,000 AND 250,000

TOPIC: LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION

A. LEADERSHIP AS FOUND TODAY IN INSTRUCTION IN INTERPRETING THE CURRICULUM

I. IN THE SUPERINTENDENT

Z. C. THORNBURG, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DES MOINES, IOWA

One of my first professional texts clearly emphasized the point that the main business of the school was instruction and not government. Order was not to take the place of industry, nor discipline the place of instruction.

Aside from the teacher and the pupil the course of study is the most important adjunct in the school. Teaching is worth while only in so far as it arouses thought regarding those things that are worth thinking about. Pages, chapters, topics, and subtopics are not a curriculum. Material, places, conditions, and their relationship to the pupil, present or future, when properly organized, not by the superintendent at his desk, but by teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents, after survey trial and application, might form a fair basis for the curriculum.

The public school develops chiefly habits, ideas, and attitudes. Current educational literature is stressing the development of the intellect thru the grouping of curricula material in terms of social problems or projects. If the curriculum is to be interpreted so as to modify the pupils' behavior, both the method and the content must be taken into consideration.

The teachers should not only be led in building the course of study, but likewise be directed in its application; the training of leaders in an educational system is of equal importance to the selection of those capable

of leading. Numerous teachers can be found in every system who have initiative, scholarship, teaching skill, personality, social aptitude, health, and surplus vitality to develop and carry forward the important lines of present-day school activities. It is the business of the superintendent to find and use these valuable individuals.

A superintendent in a western city needed a teacher for an open-air school. A year prior to opening he suggested to a certain teacher that she begin preparation in this particular field. Another helper was needed to take charge of atypical children, and a grade teacher who had not been especially trained, but who had the elements of leadership, was discovered for this department.

The successful superintendent must also be able to detect leadership in the light of the curriculum in those who are about to enter the force of the city over which he presides. This ability must be analyzed and located in the school or territory most needed. The reorganization of schools, junior high schools, departmental teaching, the platoon system, make it easy to utilize special ability; these plans, for instance, permit the entire time of the strong teacher in English to be used in teaching her specialty instead of requiring her, as under the old system, to teach all subjects with the probability of the teaching in the other subjects being poorly done. The curriculum should be so organized that the teacher may have periods for relaxation. More and more we are learning the importance of conserving the physical strength of the teachers. It requires more than ordinary effort on the part of the teacher to keep to the maximum mental capacity when working with children. Eight hours of work are by no means equal to seven hours of work plus one hour of play. Someone has said that the spiritual fails when the physical and mental begin to ebb. Leadership is weak indeed if it in any manner overlooks the first; it must ever be humble, bearing in mind that sympathy may not be in the printed outline, nor love always written into the teacher's contract.

Some years ago a superintendent who had just been elected in a well-known city announst in the first plank of his platform that he had purchast an automobile and proposed to visit every school in the city. There is value in such visits, but the average city needs definite standards of teaching and study more than schoolroom visits from the head of the school system. There must be a rather clear notion of why geography is worth while and the method used. What should the children do in penmanship in the sixth grade? How much progress should they make in any particular grade?

Measurement is a most vital link in the chain used to interpret instruction; therefore measurement and standards must be clearly understood, not only by the pupils and the teachers, but by the public as well. If Latin, modern languages, and algebra have a value for the average boy or girl in the high-school grades, the public has a right to understand that value in reasonably definite terms and applications.

A democracy is secure only so long as the children have access to free schools whose function has been correctly understood. It is then very important for every good citizen in the democracy to know the purpose of the public schools.

In the beginning of our educational history in this country the scheme provided for a triumvirate. The home was to train the child in the industries, the church was to care for the spiritual training, and the school for the mental training. Long since have we realized that this classification is an impossibility, and more and more is the work of the home, and to some extent of the church, being turned over to the schools. It is impossible exactly to define the field of each, but all three institutions, each using the same positive constructive method, must be utilized if the child is ever to have the chance to which he is fully entitled.

The public must be instructed, and the very best way is thru semi-public organizations, such as the chamber of commerce, the press, mothers' councils, trades assemblies, rotary clubs, improvement leagues, and any other avenue thru which the superintendent may speak of the school plans. In all of these there are leaders who must be reacht and trained largely by the heads of the educational system. There is a leader who will be invaluable in the Italian group. There is another in the locality where the Greeks live. Mothers' councils, misguided, are a greater abomination to the superintendent and the school system than the war-charged church choir is to the preacher; but properly directed, given something to do, they are the most potent factor of the day in interpreting the programs of the American public schools. Thru any or all of these organizations and institutions the superintendent may plead for intermediate schools, more open-air schools, more opportunity rooms, added rooms for the deaf, relief for the crippled children, new high-school buildings, additional equipment, better salaries, higher taxes, or any other items needed in the system.

Some pedagogical cynic, or an overcritical layman, who thinks of the modern school superintendent in the light of the old-time schoolmaster with his long hair and extended coat tail, who knew everything that was not worth knowing and could do nothing worth while but teach children, might not agree that some of these undertakings are within the proper field of the superintendent. Some may charge that I have outlined a program for a politician. I am not concerned much about that, but firmly believe that we need educational statesmanship in our schools if the teachers are to be led in the training of leaders thru a proper understanding of the school program.

DISCUSSION

Fred M. Hunter, superintendent of schools, Oakland, Calif.—School superintendency is coming to stand out as a profession. As an administrator the superintendent's function is large and responsible. He must be a business man, a man of affairs, able to

take his place along with other men who do things in his community. But this function is not distinctive. He does not differ in this respect from the executive officers of dozens of large business institutions each carrying on a business differing widely from that of the other and from the work of the superintendent.

The superintendent is professional in his *supervisory* relationship; that is, it is in his supervision of the fundamental activities of the school rather than in his efforts as general manager to surround the work of the schools with proper conditions for development that the professional character of the superintendent of schools lies. I do not mean that the superintendent must make his major function the supervision of classroom instruction by direct personal contact, but I do mean that he must be something more than a mere manager and diplomat, that he has a greater service to perform than merely to surround actual school work with proper conditions, and that is, to shape the development of this thing we call the curriculum by leading the forces which actually make it, and to interpret it to at least three groups of people—to the teachers, to the board of education, and to the public.

This conception of the superintendent as a professional leader and as an interpreter of the curriculum makes him a student of curriculum-making; not the kind of curriculum-making which consists in conforming to tradition, but rather of the type which seeks (1) the great national purposes in education, (2) the defects of our present school organization and the machinery in obtaining them, and (3) the assistance of the whole teaching force in the active work of scientific investigation and experimentation.

The multitude of activities introduced into the schools as war measures has increast almost beyond conception this responsibility of the superintendent. These activities have emphasized in bold terms the national ideals. Every superintendent has seen in flaming letters against the black storm of Prussianism the national motto, "The Nation for the Individual," and he has read with almost equal clearness the secondary lines, "Individual Service and Responsibility to the Nation." As a curriculum-maker he is constrained by his own professional ideals and by the pressure of national necessity to reconstruct machinery, content, and method until these great national, yes international, purposes shape every activity and inspire the work of every classroom.

No less plainly has our great national crisis shown us the defects in our system of education as it has brought us into realization of the tremendously responsible relation between public education and nationality. Everybody knows that we have no thorogoing machinery for Americanization. The patriotic spirit of every community has revolted at the un-American sentiment that has been evident whenever patriotic pressure has become intense. The terrible danger that lurks in our large unamalgamated elements is no longer apparent only to students of sociology. It is now a part of the public consciousness. That 13 per cent of our population are foreign born or children of the first generation of foreign parentage, and that 30 per cent of these are illiterate is not conducive to smug satisfaction either on the part of the public or on the part of those responsible for our educational machinery. So the first great defect in the work of our schools and its relation to national life is shown by the lack of a well-developt system for Americanization.

The second great defect is the failure of our schools to cover thoroly their field, that is, their failure to provide for all American youth up to an age nearing maturity a fairly adequate training for citizenship. The experiments made in the states that have begun a system of industrial education have brought us the conclusion that such training should extend to the age of eighteen for all youth in our land. The Massachusetts registration of minors, the Wisconsin continuation law, and similar steps taken by various cities and communities place the legislative stamp of approval upon this conception. Yet how lamentable is the situation when we view the record of the high schools of the country. A recent survey of the elimination from the high schools of the country by Frank G. Pickell and B. F. Mickelblech shows that the high schools of the various sections of the

United States are able to retain to the Senior year the following percentages of those entering as Freshmen:

	Percentage	
	First Year	Fourth Year
Section:		
North Atlantic states	100	39
North Central states	100	43
South Atlantic states	100	28
South Central states	100	28
Western states	100	37
Cities:		
Boston (highest)	100	54
New York City (lowest)	100	21

The superintendent then, as a leader in curriculum-making, must himself see clearly, first, the great national purposes and their demands upon public school activities, and secondly, the great shortcomings of which our school system in the past has been guilty. He is called upon to be a keen discriminator in values and to select and organize the demands to which he and his followers shall accede.

The first demand growing out of our recognition of national purposes and school defects is this: The curriculum shall be an organized series of practices and activities rather than a body of knowledge based upon the principle that action alone is educative. The government has been remaking our curriculum for us before our very eyes. It has been forcing into our classrooms activities which have done more in the past six months in training for real citizenship than all our laboriously devised schedules of social studies have done in the past five years.

The second principle involved in the new demands is that of variation. This principle of variation as opposed to uniformity will guide the curriculum-making of the future upon two different planes: first, curriculums will vary in accordance with the individual needs, or, in more practical terms, with the group needs of boys and girls as determined by social inheritance, economic environment, and natural tendencies; secondly, curriculums will vary in the organizational units in which these organizations are located, and the respective needs of these communities.

The third principle in curriculum-making under the new demands will be this: Curriculums will be made by two groups of people: first, by classroom teachers, or their respective committees, who are studying the needs of children by first-hand contact; and, secondly, by special groups of experimenters employed by communities to study individual and group differences in children and to survey community needs.

The fourth principle under our new demands is the principle of extension. Classroom and laboratory practices must not cease abruptly with the graduation of the pupil or his elimination from school. The superintendent as a maker and interpreter of the curriculum must have a conception of the development of such courses as will extend the usefulness of the schools far past the present idea of school age and far out of the geographical limits of our school plants.

To the board of education the superintendent should be a leader in establishing an attitude of professional-mindedness. Upon the superintendent, to a large degree, falls the responsibility of so handling his relationship with the board of education and so organizing the avenues thru which professional information may be kept constantly before them that the temptation to play politics is lessened and the main purposes of the schools are always held before them. His method of attack should lead to the point of view that the greatest service which boards of education can perform is thru their leadership of

public opinion in forming sound educational policies, and thru a conception of their function as being legislative rather than executive and administrative. The superintendent should lead in bringing about an organization of his board upon a broad policy-making basis rather than along the lines of administrative detail.

Because the attitude of boards toward education and the sentiment which the public in general has regarding education are retroactive upon each other the superintendent cannot neglect any means of direct appeal to the public itself. The superintendent's office should use the public press, the rostrum of organizations affiliated with the public schools, such as parent-teacher associations, civic-center organizations, women's clubs, and improvement clubs, and in fact every legitimate avenue of approach to the public to build in the mind of the public the foundations of sound educational doctrine.

The superintendent's leadership in interpreting the purposes of the curriculum to his teachers and in making the accomplishment of those purposes a fact is dependent upon his ability to lead his board of education to a proper conception of its responsibility and largest functions, and his hold upon public sentiment is dependent upon his ability to control the avenues of public information on school development and school policies. He is authoritatively a leader of his professional co-workers, but he must make himself a leader of those who have political authority over him and of the public which maintains the institution in which he works. In this sense, he is without question the most significant public servant in his community. He should regard his responsibility with a spirit of service and devotion and should make it his life-purpose to capitalize his time and knowledge, his professional training, and missionary zeal in the largest way possible.

II. IN PRINCIPALS AND SUPERVISORS

R. O. STOOPS, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, JOLIET, ILL.

The wording of this subject at once suggests to me the personality of the supervisor of classroom instruction and the high type of professional service which he should render to the teachers under his immediate direction.

The historical development of the position of principal or supervisor came from the discovery and recognition of those personal traits of leadership which made one teacher in a building or group stand out as the "head teacher." In like manner, when buildings multiplied as the village grew into a city, the principal who had shown markt initiative and administrative ability became general director of the work in a number of buildings and the position of supervisor was developt. In both cases the position was a recognition of the qualities of personal leadership. It is understood that the term "supervisor" in this discussion refers to the supervisory principal, or general supervisor, of a definite group of teachers.

The personality of a supervisor contributes largely to his success. He must be a man among men, a kindred spirit of the men who do things in the community. A woman supervisor should be identified with the agressive women's organizations and her cooperation should be sought in all lines of social service. The human element in education demands that the supervisor identify himself with the lay interests of the community so that from personal touch he may interpret community needs in terms of educational activity. In no other way can he hope to relate his work to the

concrete thought and practical application of everyday civic, commercial, and industrial life.

An honest attitude toward his work is the most essential quality in a supervisor. Positive traits of character, such as loyalty, fairness, and courage, must stand out in all he does. He must have the perseverance and patience to labor long with apparent failure until he can turn it to success. His optimism must inspire hope in others; his technical knowledge and skill must command their respect. These qualities in a supervisor not only inspire a teacher to bring the fulness of any subject or teaching to the pupils, but insures such confidence that she will feel free to invite her superior to pass upon a definite piece of work.

Constructive leadership in education must be based upon a balanst conception of the entire nature of the child. The percentage of selected men rejected by the various exemption boards thruout the country suggest that we have failed to send the entire boy to school. Those responsible for the program of studies should hold before the classroom teachers the importance of constructive recreation and robust health and should point the way to definite standards of physical hardihood. Personal hygiene and household sanitation offer a field for habit formation which makes for moral safety, civic efficiency, and personal success later on in life.

Next to the physical basis as an underlying factor in education comes the emotional nature of the child. This determines to a large extent his attitude toward his companions, his interest in nature about him, in art, and in music. The utilization by the teacher of these social and aesthetic values means a citizenship later on which will recognize community interests, organize community activities, and continually seek an improved environment. So basic are the physical and emotional natures of the child as a foundation upon which all teaching must rest that the supervisor must make their full appreciation by the teacher his first concern.

It is then the province of the supervisor to see that the fundamental academic subjects are properly related to these two aspects of child life. From them must come the energy and interest to enable the pupil to complete the academic work with the minimum of time and effort. Training of the hands in certain basic processes of a prevocational nature should supplement the academic work. The mental processes in handwork are much more valuable to the child than the concrete results. Here again the supervisor must be sure that the teacher considers, in her plans and practice, industrial and cultural education as supplementary rather than competitive.

Not only must the validity of the teacher's theory be checkt by the supervisor, as I have indicated, but the curriculum must be interpreted to her in terms of social need. No matter how carefully the curriculum may have been prepared, further interpretation to most teachers will be necessary. Outlines upon the various subjects must be prepared from time to

time to bring out the fulness of the course of study and to set forth the best methods of teaching. All along the line practice must be measured in terms of social validity. Life must be significant at every level. The school comes in between the child and the world at large, while the primitive child had no such restrictions. Nature-study must be a study of things, not about things. Literature should contribute to an interpretation of life. Art should develop appreciation and common skill. Moral education must be concrete in form. Social ethics and social conditions are supplementary; one is the building, the other is the foundation. All school values should reflect the fighting values of the world outside. In fact, the unconscious method of great teaching comes from the proper social point of view.

Few teachers, unaided, will give sufficient emphasis to matters of present-day interest. Just now history is so vitally in the making that current events have a compelling power hitherto unknown. The vital significance of citizenship—its privileges and its responsibilities—stands out as never before. Just now material such as the "Teachers' Patriotic Leaflets," issued by the National Security League, might well replace much of our prescribed work in civics. Our interdependence upon each other and specific phases of international commerce set forth in some such form as the government bulletins on community and national life should supplement the general curriculum or be substituted for certain parts of it. In like manner the supervisor must clarify the importance and determine the place of thrift campaigns, of Junior Red Cross work, and of education in the conservation of food and fuel as a part of the school program. All of these activities have educational possibilities in civic and social service which must not be overlookt. Undertaken without definite and positive direction, however, they would tend toward confusion, loss of time, and indefinite results.

The greatest task of the supervisor will always be the improvement of classroom instruction. Efforts toward this end must be based upon accurate knowledge of conditions gained from personal visits. This takes time. All criticism should be constructive and definite. To say that work is "good," "fair," or "unsatisfactory," without stating the particular reason for such a judgment requires no ability and will probably arouse curiosity or provoke resentment. On the other hand, a constructive criticism points out a definite deficiency and proposes a definite remedy.

Much may be accomplisht thru demonstration lessons and thru directed visits by teachers. The demonstration lesson should be given under normal classroom conditions by the supervisor, or by some teacher selected by him, before a group of teachers of the same grade or subject. After the exercise is concluded and the pupils have been dismist, a free and full discussion of the plan and method involved will invariably bring out constructive suggestions and concrete practices exceedingly valuable to all

concerned. Such discussions will clarify aims and single out the proper points of attack. Visiting by teachers may result in similar benefits if properly directed and afterward discust.

The supervisor must also lead in devising and setting up definite standards of achievement. There must be a clear understanding as to specific accomplishments in every phase of the work. This involves a testing and measuring of results by some definite scale in the application of which the teacher must have an intelligent and sympathetic interest. Teacher and supervisor can then have a common basis for comparing results, in which there is unity of aim and honesty of purpose. This will insure that the individual needs of pupils will be met and the strength or weakness of the teacher be revealed in a helpful manner.

Both the supervisory principal and the general supervisor will always have certain administrative details to look after. The experienst expert in educational theory and practice is too valuable a man, however, to be tied down by mere matters of routine. If he is to furnish real leadership he will not permit any combination of circumstances to dissipate his time and energy from the aggressive constructive work before him.

In this brief discussion I have attempted to show that successful leadership by a supervisor must be founded upon sterling traits of character and recognized technical training and skill. He must then assure himself that his teachers have a sound educational theory based upon a full appreciation of the interdependence of the physical, emotional, and mental activities of the child. He must interpret the curriculum in terms of social need, measuring all school activities by the fighting values of the world outside, and utilizing matters of present-day interest to teach civic responsibility and social service. He must adapt new ideas to his school and anticipate and organize his teachers' needs. He must lead the way to better classroom instruction by definite constructive criticisms, by demonstration lessons, by directed visits, and by devising and stabilizing standards of achievement. His spirit must permeate the entire school from positive personal contact, and not indirectly from an office desk.

DISCUSSION

J. H. Beveridge, superintendent of schools, Omaha, Nebr.—The address you have just listened to is to be commended for the emphasis it places upon strong personality and the need of technical training and skill on the part of the principal; for the evident appreciation of constructive criticism, demonstration lessons, and well-directed visits; for the use of objective standards in measuring the efficiency of pupils; and for the interpretation of the curriculum in terms of social needs thru present-day activities.

The functions of the principal may be roughly classified under three heads: (1) clerical, (2) managerial, and (3) supervisory. Observation and experience coupled with careful investigation indicate that the principal is likely to spend too much time in the first and second functions and too little in the third and more important.

The reason for such a distribution of time is not always the fault of the principal. The requirements of the school system in which he works may be such as to entail a

undue amount of clerical work. If this is the case it then becomes incumbent upon the administrator of the system to make some provision for clerical assistance to the principal. This may be done thru the use of pupils in the normal-training department of the high schools, or thru part-time service of pupils in the business department of such schools. Some systems are doing effective work in this way. The simplification of records is often an aid in lessoning the clerical work of the principal. Not infrequently we find a principal who enjoys the managerial work to such an extent that he fails to realize the facility with which this work may be accomplisht and hence wastes time. He may possess the qualifications of a good visitor to such an extent that he gives to this department of his work much of the time that could be well devoted to supervision of classroom instruction. The work of managing the school may often be facilitated thru brevity of conferences and by developing initiative on the part of pupils thru student councils. Specific hours for conferences will aid the principal in economizing his time.

If we were to ask why classroom supervision does not receive more attention on the part of the principal no doubt we would find the answer, in many cases, to be the lack of training and skill in the technique of instruction, a lack of ability in supervision, and a belief that teachers do not care to be supervised. No one has a right to occupy the responsible position of supervising principal who does not possess skill in instruction, who does not know the art of supervising, who is not willing to study modern methods and grow in service. It is our belief that teachers are willing to be supervised, that they want to improve, that they desire to grow, and that they will cheerfully respond when approacht in the right way. The secret is in getting them to work and letting them know that they are a part of the system, that they have contributions to make and responsibilities to assume.

The need of more careful supervision is made evident (1) thru many observations such as that quoted by the previous speaker from Murray's *Elementary Standards;* (2) by noting the kind of questions askt by the teachers and the kind of answers they accept from their pupils, as indicated by Miss Stevens in her thesis, in which she tells us that in a series of recitations the teachers used 18,933 words and all the pupils of those teachers used only 5,675 words. This is certainly an example of where the teachers had an excellent opportunity for growth in English, but how about the pupils? (3) Thru differences observed in the efficiency of schools and classrooms under careful supervision and those lacking in this particular. (The experience of Rice, Stone, and Courtis all suggest, as stated in the *Supervision of Arithmetic* by Jessup and Coffman, that the most important single factor in effective arithmetical instruction is that of effective supervision.)

What are some of the objects to be secured by the principal thru supervision? (1) changing conditions from what they are to what they ought to be; (2) making the superior points of one teacher the practice of as many as possible in the classes; (3) making the office of the principal a clearing-house thru which good ideas and good methods may be promoted and poorer methods be eliminated; (4) measuring the progress and efficiency of pupils thru the use of standards and scales; (5) determining thru the grades retardation and acceleration of pupils and making such provision as is necessary to lessen retardation and aid acceleration (too frequently bright pupils in classes receive less attention than they should and thus inculcate habits of laziness); (6) interpreting the curriculum so that the pupil may be given the opportunity to discover himself his elements of strength, his tendencies, and thus be fitted into the work in society where he will render most service; (7) discovering and developing initiative and resourcefulness in such pupils as have the germ, and making this contagious in the school as far as possible.

To attain these aims the supervising principal must know what good teaching is, he must be a student of education, and as such he must have that discriminating judgment which will separate the wheat from the chaff. He must be a teacher of teachers and have that inspiration and leadership which commands respect and wins esteem because of merit.

He may have many types of teachers to supervise. He will always have two: (1) the new, those fresh from normal school and college; and (2) those older in the service. For the former he must interpret the curriculum so that they may see their theory realized in practice—some of which may not carry over. He should cooperate with the institutions from which they come so that the institutions may know of their success or failure in the field. They must be imbued with that spirit of enthusiasm that makes them continue to grow. For the latter he must give a new vision. Some will be the most helpful and efficient in the corps; others must drink from educational fountains of youth, must be sprinkled with the perfume of modern theory and practice, yea, even be born again. All this is possible thru the leadership and inspiration of many in the field. Are we equal to the task of reconstruction in education which is now upon us? Let us here pledge ourselves to this service. A. B. Hinsdale once said, "Few spectacles are more pitiful than a little man at the head of one of the big school systems of the country. He is about as competent to vitalize and energize the school as a pocket dynamo would be to drive a city electric railway system."

B. HOW LEADERSHIP IN MAKING NEW ADJUSTMENTS IN EDUCATION MUST BE PROVIDED

ERNEST HORN, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY, IOWA CITY, IOWA

There has probably never been a period in which the reconstruction of school practice has proceeded more rapidly than at the present. And yet we are only at the beginning of reconstruction. The demands which the government is now making on the schools involve immediate reconstruction, widespread in its effect, and all signs point to even more elaborate changes within the next ten years.

On the other hand there probably has never been a time in which the country has been so well prepared to make adjustments as at the present. There is more professional spirit abroad. The number of trained teachers and administrators is greatly increasing. Courses in our teachers' colleges and normal schools are generally more practical. Moreover we are using scientific methods which up to the last few years have not been used in the service of educational progress.

What I have to say deals with the problem of providing leadership that will open the eyes of classroom teachers to modern progress in education, help them to understand their course of study, and show them how to teach more effectively. Perhaps the problem should have been stated: Where can the classroom teacher look for leadership and direction in the various reconstructions which confront her? What are to be the connecting links between leaders, whoever they may be, and their classrooms? The problem is, in other words, how to improve classroom teaching.

Last year the use of a detailed syllabus was recommended to this section as one effective method for guaranteeing that the teacher be led into better ways of teaching. It seems certain that a highly detailed syllabus of the course of study is absolutely essential to any plan of leadership in systems with a population of 25,000 or more.

There is another agency much akin to this that has been greatly neglected. Every ward school should contain a minimum teachers' professional library. Such a library should contain, not only the most helpful books in education, but also such books as will enlarge a teacher's grasp of the subjects which she is teaching. If either of these two classes of books is to be slighted, let it be the first. Thorogoing grasp of the subject and life outside the school are the primary prerequisites to all good teaching.

The need for reference material cannot be too much strest at a time, such as the present, when rapid reconstruction is going on in all our courses of study. The reaction from supervision, by means of these books, is probably quicker than from any other sort of supervision whatever. Suppose, for example, the teacher of geography of the United States is taking up the problem of food production in this country. Suppose the supervisor puts on the teacher's desk such books as the *Statistical Atlas* of the United States Census, calling attention to the product maps in it and offering a few suggestions as to how they may be used. Teachers who take offense at even constructive criticisms of teaching methods will accept such service without any irritation whatever. It is a highly impersonal thing.

Let us turn now to the personal agencies in maintaining leadership in a school system. The time of the superintendent will not allow him to do much of this work in person. All general policies must be directed, of course, from the superintendent's office; but who are to be the captains and lieutenants, who are to see that the superintendent's policies are carried out in practice? There are several possibilities. One is to attempt to do this work thru an assistant superintendent. But while this is a step in the right direction, it seems apparent from experience in the past that for cities of the size mentioned sufficient supervision cannot be maintained in this way.

Consider the possibility of solving the problem of immediate leadership thru establishing special supervisors, such as primary supervisors, intermediate supervisors, and handwriting supervisors. The mere problem of going from school to school, even in a city of 25,000, makes it very difficult for a supervisor to give close supervision to many teachers. Moreover, even in towns of 100,000 or more, it is very difficult to secure money to attract the right sort of people for these positions.

A third possibility is to put the responsibility of this work upon the ward principal. In the opinion of the speaker this is the strategic thing to do. The ward principal we have always with us. Thru him we can supervise with less administrative waste. In every school system in which the speaker has had an opportunity to visit a large number of schools it can be truthfully said, as is the principal, so is the ward school.

Of course a wholesale change of principals cannot be brought about in a day or in a year. But there can be a policy of insisting upon training for principals. Let them be found anywhere in the country. St. Louis has done it, with clearly favorable results. Other cities have done it.

Certainly we can stop the quite common practice of using the principalship as a form of teacher pension.

There will, of course, be difficulties. No change in school machinery is without its administrative puzzles. Such a change, however, is not an experiment. No case has come to the speaker's notice where a change in the direction of trained principals has been regretted.

These statements are not by any means intended to imply that no principal can be a valuable leader without a college education. We have all seen teachers as well as supervisors who have succeeded in spite of the handicap of insufficient college preparation. Such success has involved a disproportionate amount of labor, however, and comes to very few. On the other hand a college education is no guaranty of efficiency and leadership. After allowances have been made for native qualities much depends upon the sort of training received in the process of getting the Bachelor's degree or higher degree.

But no matter what supervising arrangement is chosen—whether it be an assistant superintendent, special supervisor, or principal—the men or women who are to furnish the leadership must be trained. From such evidence as I have been able to gather it seems clear that the superintendents in cities of the size of those represented in this audience have to depend for assistance in providing leadership upon supervisors and principals who have no more professional training, and in many cases actually less training, than the teachers who are to be led. For example, in a certain large city 74 per cent of the principals had normal training or better, while 83 per cent of the teachers had normal training or better. In the same city 3 per cent of the principals were college graduates, while 7 per cent of the teachers were college graduates. In another city the average years of professional training on the part of the men teachers is 2.88, while that on the part of men principals is 2.6. In a recent survey of thirty-eight principals, but one was a college graduate and but three had been to college. In the five cities studied in the report of teachers' salaries and the cost of living, the supervisory officials had an average training of 2.6 years, while the grade teachers had a training of 1.8 years. In the same system the average training of high-school teachers was 3.6 years.

Of what should the supervisor's training consist? Suppose that a teacher or principal now in service should desire to undertake a university course in order to fit himself more properly for supervisory work. Should he not be expected above everything else to pursue, first, those courses in education which deal in a practical and scientific way with the problems which arise in organizing and teaching common elementary-school subjects, and secondly, those courses in academic subjects which contribute most directly to scholarship in these school subjects?

In a certain university last summer seventy principals and superintendents elected a course which had for its problem the bringing about of

economy of time in the case of common school subjects. In each case a fairly exhaustive study was made of the data bearing on the teaching of the subject and these data were organized to throw light on such practical problems as confront the classroom teacher. The University Elementary School was used as a laboratory and demonstration school. At the end of the course each member was askt what he had obtained from the course which could be used to improve the teaching under his supervision. Is it not suggestive that no student mentioned any reading or discussion, but that each one named some problem which he had seen actually workt out under classroom conditions in the University Elementary School?

There is one more factor in providing leadership in a school system and that is the special survey. Special surveys have great advantages, particularly where the surveyor is employed to institute a constructive program in the course of study and in the method of teaching this course of study. The surveyor should be required to show precisely what should be taught and how it should be taught. It would be valuable too to have as a part of his contract a follow-up after a few months have elapst.

DISCUSSION

J. W. McCLINTON, superintendent of schools, Pueblo, Colo.—We are subject to spasms. We are at times spasmodic in our teaching, spasmodic in our preparation, and spasmodic in our results. We take a course with some specialist in education and he is enthusiastic in his field, necessarily so. Under his spell we become charged with his enthusiasm and return to carry those particular principles to extremes. Here is where we need the balance of power and here is where we need the guiding hand. Here is where we need the trained individual to treat our spasmodic condition.

There is too much difference between the salaries paid to superintendents, principals, and supervisors, and those paid to teachers. Find a vacancy in your school system in a supervisory position and immediately you will have a dozen applicants from your teaching force. Examine into the motives of these applicants and it will readily be found that they were led to make application mostly because of the higher salary and the consequent influence that the position commands, and not because of any special adaptability on their part for this field of work. It requires more than salary and position of influence to produce a supervisor of worth. Dr. Horn has in mind an excellent plan for a special course for supervisors, a training for teachers of experience who on account of their experience have found that they are adapted for this important field of assemblage. This course as I understand it would attempt to develop course of study interpretation, course of study making, direction as to plans and methods for presenting various kinds of subject-matter, and the development of traits necessary in handling a teaching force.

I feel that as fine as all of this will prove there is still an additional phase that must enter into our consideration of a supervisor as leader. Leadership is an inherent trait not to be ignored. Show me a group of a hundred students and I will find in them a leader. Break this group into two of fifty and replace the one leader with another student and I will find for you a leader in each group. Take this hundred and divide them into groups of ten each and I will again find a leader in each of these ten divisions. Take the hundred and divide them into groups of two each and in each of the fifty divisions I will find you one of the two a leader. What is true in general is true of teachers, and that supervisor who is going to prove the greatest leader is the one who is going to recognize that leadership in the teaching force in varying degrees.

A series of questions present themselves with regard to the relation of teacher and supervisor. How much must the teacher accept blindly, or shall we put more emphasis on routine thinking than on original thinking? When must the teacher lead and when follow in working out plans for vitalizing school work? Is there any room for initiative or independence on the part of the teacher in her relation to the supervisor? Shall we have a machine-run system of schools or a personally supervised? Shall the work be personally directed or presented by untried or too oft-tried regulations? How must these questions be answered if we are to have the leadership desired in supervision?

There is no place in the field of activity for blind following, and the person who is content to submit to this condition must necessarily, in the words of one of our leading educators, think potter's field thoughts and therefore find a potter's field resting-place in the science of teaching. The teacher becomes the leader when presenting something new and worth while, and the supervisor becomes an added leader when putting this contribution into the working system of the school. Independence is essential in school work when it is interpreted according to a more recent definition of independence as the choosing of whom to follow and not the selection of one's own devices. The original individual is the person who draws his own conclusions from varied propositions and discussions of others. It resolves itself to the philosophy of the superman, which, based on brute force, must go down, while that based on humanity and opportunity for service must come up.

Leadership such as we want for supervision must then be inherent and subject to a special cause of instruction for development. It cannot be effective as an office leadership, but must be active. It must show itself in classroom teaching by way of demonstration and conference with teachers for cultivation of ideas, plans, and purposes. It is not a glad-hand leadership, but a working, cooperating, investigating leadership based on scientific methods of instruction and subject-matter with its relation to new applications fitting the reconstruction period.

The supervisor to furnish the desired leadership must be an economist in human experiences. This is an age of conservation in financial, physical, and moral living. The principles of the new economics will apply to all. The same application must likewise be made to our educational methods and practices. In the schools we must have the principles of life tried out and tested. The supervisor must make the selection of essentials. The test for finding the supervisor with this ability as a leader will be in the people with whom that supervisor will work. If the members of the teaching force have been great in following, it is inevitable that they have been subjected to the *great* in leadership. In short, leadership in the new adjustment in education must be provided by the application of the principle of the superman as applied to the economics of experiences in our selection of supervisors.

C. *DIRECT INSTRUCTION IN CITIZENSHIP IN THE HIGH SCHOOL*

MILTON BENNION, DEAN OF SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF UTAH, SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH

The American public school systems were founded and have been maintained largely on the theory that they are necessary to the production of good American citizens. During the first few decades of our national life this effort toward citizen-making was confined chiefly to the public elementary school. It consisted in training in the tools of knowledge with the expectation that the prospective citizen would acquire also a rudimentary knowledge of American history and government. This rudimentary knowledge of American history and government was presumed to stimulate

patriotic action and to lead to emulation of the examples of national heroes. Thru ability to read it was assumed that the citizen might acquire knowledge of current political problems and exercise the franchise intelligently.

Secondary schools, under private control and supported, at least in some measure, by tuition, were serving the favored few by preparing them for college rather than for citizenship. The college, in turn, prepared for the professions. It is true that the ideals of the academy were more democratic. It is also true that these democratic ideals failed of realization. Even in the Philadelphia Academy Franklin's cherisht plans miscarried and his new English school was forst into an insignificant position.

The state's assumption of responsibility for secondary education, together with nearly two centuries of educational endeavor, has made the English school, with its emphasis upon study of the mother-tongue, history, science, and modern languages, the chief concern of public high schools today. An examination of these courses, however, readily reveals how little they contribute directly to understanding of problems of public concern.

The high-school graduate with his commencement prize essay is commonly an object of indulgence or pity on the part of experienst men, largely because his notions of public affairs are too ideal, in the ethereal sense of that term. This of course is due to the fact that the whole course of his education tends to estrange him from the concrete problems of citizenship as they are. Furthermore the young citizen's failure to understand these problems and to harmonize his ethereal idealism with practical success often causes him to throw overboard all idealism and to set about the attainment of practical success with little regard for principle.

The reading of English classics designated for college-entrance requirements, the study of our own colonial and national history, and the history and anatomy of our government are more likely to impress the youthful mind with a democratic individualism impossible in the twentieth century than to lead to intelligent action in a social democracy.

Knowledge of what has been may be very helpful in facing new situations; mere knowledge of past events is not, however, sufficient to enable the citizen to grapple successfully with new situations; he must be master of fundamental principles and must have practice in applying these principles in concrete cases as they arise. In this respect, however, our schools have been lamentably weak—a weakness that can be overcome only by more direct instruction in citizenship.

The formula of the political philosophers of the eighteenth and early and middle nineteenth centuries, including Herbert Spencer, are in large measure unworkable now. This is also true of many of the practices of the American government prior to the Civil War. Thus it happens that that part of the high-school curriculum which is supposed to contribute most directly to preparation for citizenship must be reconstructed or fail in its

purpose. This is also true in some measure of standardized courses in economics and sociology. They fall short in direct application to current problems. These defects are, however, being remedied in some of the latest textbooks in social science. In civics emphasis is being transferred from the structure of government to its present-day functions; in economics the older theories are being revised to fit the ideals and the necessary practices of a social democracy; in sociology speculations concerning the origin of social institutions and customs are giving place to discussion of present-day social problems. In so far as these social-science courses are thus transformed they may be regarded as contributing toward a plan of direct instruction in citizenship.

In past generations ideas of individual rights have been more imprest upon American minds than have considerations of social obligations; but a youth does not fully sense his larger social obligations without systematic effort to develop the foundations of this sense. These foundations are laid in an intelligent understanding of the communal nature of civilization, of the benefits that come to each thru the efforts of all, and the corresponding obligations of each to all. This, from a purely humanitarian standpoint, is the basis of universal brotherhood and of the internationalism that is already a partly realized fact. America as a nation has transcended nationalism in the narrower sense in that it has harmonized purely national aims with the larger purposes of humanity. Before the youth leaves high school he should have a clear comprehension of the meaning of these facts, of the principles upon which they are based, and of the goal toward which they point. He should know how to be a consistent, loyal American without being disloyal to humanity, and to be loyal to humanity without being disloyal to America.

In matters of domestic policy he should know what great national problems have to be solved. He should know the principles involved in such public questions as: the conservation of our natural resources and the equitable distribution of the benefits of these resources; the public ownership or public control of railroads and other means of communication and commerce; the regulation of the prices of commodities necessary to the public welfare; regulation of the conditions of labor and safeguarding the standards of living among workingmen; protecting the rights of children; and providing, as nearly as may be, equal opportunity of development to all. This type of study should be part of the education of every American youth. It may be made a course of study in every high school, a part of the training for citizenship under the Smith-Hughes bill, and a part of the continuation-school work for youths between sixteen and twenty years of age.

The carrying out of such a program of universal secondary education requires large public expenditures. This in turn calls for increast taxation or raising of larger revenues thru rental of natural resources or operation of public utilities. It means to make more extensive public use of natural

resources—the common heritage of the nation—and to tax more heavily the great private fortunes that have already been made from the use of these resources and from private ownership of socially made values. The necessity and the justice of taxing incomes and inheritances and the practical limitations of the taxing power are problems that, in principle at least, should be clear to every graduate of our high schools. The high-school graduate should not be fooled by the cheap cry of a candidate for office that, if elected, he will reduce taxes. He should be able to see clearly the relation between taxation and the benefits of public expenditures, and to know that the greatest economy sometimes involves increasing public expenditures, and that the opportunities of the many are extended thru providing greater public benefits with diminisht private expense.

Every restatement of economic and social theory and every change in political practice must be judged in the light of principles more comprehensive than those of any one science now commonly taught in high schools. There must be developt in the mind of the youth a grasp of the fundamental principles of social ethics by which he may coordinate and regulate his varied, complex obligations—his duties to family, to the state, and to humanity at large. He must know the limitations of the rights of property and the relation of property rights to the rights of persons. He must be able to see how a policy applied in a new country with scant population and boundless resources cannot be applied in twentieth-century America without violence to the fundamental rights of man and without retardation of social progress.

By suggesting a plan of instruction in citizenship we do not mean to neglect any other agency in citizen-making, e.g., cultivating the feelings, training in social habits, etc., but these alone are inadequate. Feeling must be guided by understanding and habits adjusted to new conditions in agreement with fundamental principles.

In order that every high-school student may be properly introduced to the current problems of citizenship it has been suggested that a course be offered introductory to the social sciences—a course that shall disregard the traditional boundaries between civics, economics, and sociology. As in the field of natural science courses are now offered under the name of general or introductory science, so in the field of social science practical needs and future development can best be served by direct attack upon problems of greatest interest and practical value. These varied problems in the field of social science can well be coordinated and unified thru the ethical principles by which all social problems must be solved and social practices approved or disapproved.

Social ethics must, of necessity, draw upon the whole field of the social sciences for its facts and illustrations of principles; it is therefore eminently adapted to the purpose here sought. Furthermore it will provide American youth in the schools in a systematic way with a standard of judging values other than that of that of the American dollar.

DISCUSSION

H. B. WILSON, superintendent of schools, Topeka, Kans.—As I expected from an acquaintanceship with his textbook on citizenship I find myself in substantial agreement with Dean Bennion's paper thruout. Even in normal routine times there are many duties and responsibilities which students in the cities represented here may and should carry. Some provision should be made for enlisting their aggressive cooperation with the sanitary measures instituted by the city commission or its health department. In many cities the burden of the periodic clean-up-week campaign is carried by students of the public schools. Provision is also made for following up such work thru the organization of the students into a sanitary commission. Many cities have permanent plans for the promotion of paper saving. It is quite common for the burden of work in efforts to beautify and render attractive the city to be carried on by students in the city schools. In a number of schools the students in the civics and chemistry classes have cooperated with the city health department in the inspection of the city milk supply. Likewise the chemistry students in many high schools test the fuel value of the coal purchast for the city and the schools. All these experiences afford excellent training for the students in the responsibilities of citizenship. The number of things they may do is almost countless, particularly in these strenuous days of war, and no commercial club or society clique should be allowed to withhold such opportunities for service from our students without suffering the imposition of a severe penalty. In order that the great world-crisis, with all that it means, may be brought home to our students in conduct-influencing ways it is essential that they have actual experiences in doing war work. It has been found that high-school students are just as capable of taking signatures in the Food Conservation registration as are other people. They can do certain types of Red Cross work just as accurately and reliably as older people. They were just as effective in securing memberships during the Red Cross membership campaign. They have done more in selling Thrift Stamps and baby bonds than the mature citizens have in most communities. No more fundamental way of bringing actual training in the duties and responsibilities of citizenship could be found than these activities in helping to win the war.

That there may be developt in students the requisite ability for exercising wisely the freedom and initiative which is every citizen's right in a democracy, and that there may be a larger basis for appreciating the responsibilities of citizenship in our democracy, I feel that we must make more definite provision than in the past for insuring that our students shall come to appreciate thru their study of history and civics the genius of American democracy and the rights, privileges, and opportunities which every citizen is guaranteed thereunder. What we must bear in mind is that in a democracy the sovereign will is the will of the people. Decisions may be made by our executives and legislators and programs may be put into effect only if these decisions and programs represent the consensus of opinion and judgment of the people whom they represent and for whom they act. Since the setting up of policies and the discharge of these policies are dependent upon the thinking and cooperation of all the people, it becomes evident that the school must plan its program of work so as to educate all the people according to the requirements of truth and fairness and a proper sense of values. If these ends are to be accomplisht, recent events and investigations seem to indicate strongly that our histories must be rewritten in the interest of presenting adequately and fairly the truth regarding all questions and issues discust. The account at all points must be as fair, so far as is possible with present knowledge, to other nations involved as to our own. The creation of unjustifiable prejudices in favor of, or against, England, France, Mexico, Spain, or other nations must be avoided. The story of the Civil War must be so presented as to represent truly and fairly the objects and motives as well as the successes and failures of both sides to the conflict.

In the second place, the emphasis both in our texts and in our teaching must be such as to support as strongly as possible the maintenance, improvement, and perpetuation of

our American ideals and institutions. Mere traditions, interesting incidents, or even battles and military heroes must not be presented on a par with situations causing struggles and the victories and advances resulting from successful struggles. From this time forward we shall certainly modify our attack in the matter of emphasis in such fashion as to teach more adequately and thoroly than in the past the peculiar and characteristic genius of American institutions and the permanent and outstanding assets of our democracy. Not only must we present these matters positively as in the past, showing what democracy's assets are and how we came by them, but also negatively, that the advantages of democracy's institutions may be imprest more forcibly when studied in contrast with autocracy's governmental institutions and with the limited privileges and rights of people living under them.

Even our positive attack needs to be enlivened and vitalized. It has lackt enthusiasm and has had little effect upon our students except to equip them with a certain body of academic information in which they have had merely a passive interest. Our students have not gone from their study of the growth and development of American institutions tingling with enthusiasm over our priceless heritage and, by reason of their growing appreciation, spurred on with high ambitions for the advancement and perpetuation of our democratic institutions. Rather they have gone from their study with an attitude suggesting that they felt that the fine freedom and privileges under our democracy were forever guaranteed—that since they were enjoying them without themselves having had to sacrifice for them they had always existed so and would continue so forever. Our positive attack must be so improved and enricht as to change this passive, indifferent attitude into a virile, aggressive appreciation of our great heritage and into a positive determination not only not to countenance or tolerate any encroachment upon our democratic institutions, but to lose no opportunity to work for their constant strengthening and improvement.

Nor must we be satisfied with this improved positive attack. We must enrich the effects it may be expected to produce by showing the disadvantages, the hampering effects of autocratic governments. In teaching the causes of America's entrance into the Great War our students must understand clearly that we became a participant, not merely to protect our property and our lives and to preserve our honor, but also to prevent the substitution by German force of autocratic forms of government for our free democratic institutions. In this connection our students must understand concretely such matters as Germany's mock system of representative government, her unequal franchise system in which the influence a citizen's ballot exercises is based upon his financial standing, her social caste system, with particular emphasis upon the haughty arrogance and insulting cruelty of the military class, and especially her teachings, ideals, and philosophy, which foster and fasten upon her citizens the mediaeval governmental system under which they live.

Only by this double attack may we expect to succeed in equipping the American people so that they may know and feel in their inmost souls that our democracy is a pearl without price. Such a basis for decision and action should in any time of danger cause our citizens to rise as one man to defend with their backs to the wall any encroachment upon our free institutions and the rights guaranteed thereby. Such a response in a democracy, not being the result of blind, automatic obedience to duty, as in an autocracy, but a response based upon well-founded appreciations with reference to American institutions and deep-seated prejudices against the hampering effects of autocratic governments, would launch a defense with such speed and momentum and it would be supported thruout by such lofty humanitarian motives as to render our efforts irresistible.

As has been pointed out above, our need is such texts and teaching as will guarantee greater and truer intelligence as a basis for action. We must teach the American youth the foundations of their liberty, acquaint them with the storms which for centuries raged around the building of those foundations, and familiarize them with the sacrifice and

suffering incident to their establishment. With such a background of information our citizens would appreciate more fully the stirring words of Washington when he said, "American freedom is at stake; it seems highly necessary that something should be done to avert the stroke and maintain the liberty which we derived from our ancestors."

Our citizens must genuinely realize that by the winning of our independence and by succeeding struggles the thirteen colonies were made safe for democracy; and that by the promulgation of the Monroe Doctrine in 1823 and its successful defense since the American continents were made safe for democracy. At the conclusion of the Great War we confidently expect to be able to say that, by reason of the united efforts of the democracies of the world against the combined forces of the autocratic governments of the world, the entire world has been made safe for democracy.

D. THRIFT IN RELATION TO PUBLIC SCHOOLS

LAURA M. SMITH, SUPERVISOR OF ELEMENTARY GRADES, ATLANTA, GA.

I have been askt to speak to you on the National War Savings campaign in its relation to the public schools, and more especially of the plans we are using in the Atlanta schools in cooperating with the National War Savings Committee. I feel some hesitancy in describing a plan which as yet has had a trial of only four weeks. However, I shall try to assume the attitude of mind shown by the negro soldier on the eve of his departure for France, who, when askt by a civilian friend, "Whar is you-all gwine?" replied, "Hush, nigger, I ain't gwine no whar, 'Ise bein' sent. Ain't no time to talk about gwine when de government's got yer!"

Some months ago the Secretary of the Treasury made the statement that the greatest immediate service the American people can render in this war for world-liberty is to furnish the means for its vigorous prosecution. More than eight billions have already been raised for this purpose. Recently, as you know, the Treasury Department has undertaken to raise an additional two billions thru the sale of War Savings Stamps, and to this end a National War Savings Committee has been appointed with Mr. Frank Vanderlip as chairman and a director of war-savings work selected for each state. Within less than three months the "Thrift" campaign has been launcht in every state in the Union.

What is the meaning of this movement to you? Viewed from the standpoint of dollars and cents it means merely a successful plan on the part of the government to raise money for the prosecution of the war. But to those who study it from the standpoint of education the thrift campaign means infinitely more than this. If it did not it would scarcely deserve the attention of a body like this. It is meaning more to the Atlanta schools than the raising of money. It is meaning *education in patriotism, service, forethought,* and *self-control* for the children of Atlanta. This war-savings plan has given each child in the schools a chance to help the government, and because of this fact the war has become "our war" and each of us feels personally responsible "for making the world safe for democracy." There is no doubt in the minds of the children of Atlanta as to the final outcome

of this war. Now that they have enlisted in the "Thrift Army" there can be but one result—the triumph of right over wrong. If there is any among you with misgivings on this point, listen to the following composition by a second-grade child: "I want Uncle Same to win the war, so I am buying Thrift Stamps. I have been working hard to feed the soldiers. I like to help my Country, don't you?"

When the children of a nation begin to learn team work, when sacrifice and hard work are accepted by them as merely one's part in a great cause, the first decisive blow for liberty has been dealt. You may be sure then that our boys and girls are getting in the schools the sort of training which will fit them for efficient future citizenship.

Incidentally the school children are teaching the grown-ups of the community some things which government publications and patriotic speeches could never teach them. Armed with associate membership pledge cards for War Savings Societies they are visiting the homes and office buildings and telling men and women the reasons why they should invest in Thrift Stamps. "Don't be a slacker, Mister," a young street urchin said recently to a man who refused to sign the pledge. "This here country's at war and everybody's got to help."

In addition to the great lessons of thrift, patriotism, and unselfishness which the Thrift campaign is teaching our boys and girls, the movement is proving itself a blessing to the schools in other ways. It has motivated the daily lesson in arithmetic. It has given new meaning to the lessons in history and current events. It has shown the children a practical reason for having a home garden, and each pupil in the upper grades has a space provided in his garden record book for keeping up with his monthly earnings, savings, and investments in Thrift Stamps. It has added interest to the handwork done at school, especially to the making of things which have some practical use. It has given new meaning to the daily lesson in geography, for a study of the resources of the community or country made from the standpoint of conservation is far more interesting than the usual textbook presentation. It has furnisht abundant material for oral and written English. Classes vie with one another in writing thrift plays, rhymes, stories, acrostics, and essays on subjects suggested by the campaign, and the teachers no longer complain of lack of interest in the subject. "How I Earned My Quarter" is a more interesting topic than most of those prescribed by the average textbook on English, and a three-minute speech setting forth to an imaginary purchaser the reasons for buying Thrift Stamps is a better exercise in argument or exposition than most of those found in the book.

From this hurried sketch of the Thrift campaign in its relation to the curriculum of one public school system the educator will readily see that out of this movement will come the greatest piece of constructive work produced by the present crisis. The statesman will recognize it as definite

preparation for the time of stress which will come after peace has been made —the period of readjustment to changed conditions.

In planning the Thrift campaign for the Atlanta schools our first step was to organize the teaching force for a study of the movement in its relation to the regular subjects of the curriculum. A committee on reading was appointed and askt to make a collection of thrift quotations, stories, references, etc., suitable for use in the classroom. A geography committee was appointed to make a study of the resources of our own community and later of the state, and to outline lessons suitable for older children, pointing out the evidence of our lack of thrift in the use of natural resources. A committee on civics is at present making a study of the city from the same standpoint. The arithmetic committee has made "thrift problems" suitable for the different grades, and is at present working out plans for teaching children the use of money, the keeping of accounts, etc. A committee on gardening is cooperating with the school director of this subject in an effort to show the relation between the Thrift campaign and back-yard gardens. The art and handwork committee has made thrift posters, bulletin boards, pennants, etc., and has furnisht plans for constructing individual savings banks. The committee on English has charge of all written work done in the campaign, the writing of original stories, thrift plays, jingles, essays, etc. The best of these are collected once a month from the schools and saved for use later in the *School Bulletin* or in the "Thrift Column" of the daily papers. An advisory committee consisting of three grammar-school principals assists in making general plans for the work and in editing the monthly bulletins.

Some of the ways in which we have brought this movement before the public are as follows: thru a "Thrift Column" in the daily papers; by use of posters made by teachers or pupils who show special talent for such work; by means of a "Patriotic Corner" in our public library, where we exhibit the best work of the schools done in connection with the Thrift campaign; thru a monthly *School Bulletin* on thrift in which are publisht outlines for lessons on thrift, suggestive programs, etc.; thru community rallies, thrift parades, etc.

In conclusion allow me to offer the following suggestions for your consideration:

1. That thrift study and the teaching of patriotism be made a part of our national education program, not for the duration of the war only, but *for all time to come.*

2. That in order to make such teaching effective the underlying principles of thrift, patriotism, and service be *woven into the curriculum* of our public schools, not *grafted on temporarily* for the purpose of meeting the present crisis.

3. That the teachers of the country be askt to study the curriculum with a view to eliminating such phases of our school work as have been

shown by the present crisis to be nonessential, and to give greater emphasis to those things which the war has shown us are necessary if we are to remain a free people. For example, that school banking systems, similar to those instituted in the schools of Belgium, England, and France in the early seventies be indorsed by the educators of this country, and plans be made by which each public school can offer to its pupils practical training in the use of money.

4. That in order to help mobilize quickly the resources of our country to meet the present need we make of this Thrift campaign a dramatic and important feature of our school work during the present year, remembering that school parades, tag days, patriotic rallies, thrift evenings, the making of posters, etc., are a legitimate part of our school work if they help to educate the community and further a great cause.

In working out a program by which thrift is made a part of our national education scheme let us keep in mind the fact that "America's essential purpose in entering the war is to safeguard the future of her children," and that the teaching of thrift in the schools will make for "the ultimate freedom of the American people as surely as will the triumph of the representatives of democracy on the battlefields of Europe."

E. CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH POPULATION BETWEEN 15,000 AND 25,000

TOPIC: WAR PROBLEMS

A. ECONOMY OF TIME—A TWELVE MONTHS' SCHOOL, DIVIDED INTO FOUR QUARTERS

F. E. PALMER, SUPERINTENDENT OF GRADE SCHOOLS, MASON CITY, IOWA

Perhaps a brief statement of one or two of the reasons that finally led to the adoption of the plan of the all-year-round school in Mason City will serve as well as anything else that I might say to show the close connection there is between a continuous school thruout the entire twelve months of the year and economy of time in the process of education.

Some time before the beginning of the long vacation, following my first year as superintendent of the grade schools of Mason City, I caused to be establisht in my office an employment bureau. The main object of this bureau was to help those boys and girls of the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades who were unable thru their own efforts to find some wholesome and remunerative employment during the summer season. I knew something of their great need; I knew that some of these boys and girls were from homes where the struggle for the necessities of life was keen and exacting. In their desire to help their parents, in their desire to be redeemed from the

curse of idleness, I deeply sympathized with them, and I felt that all the resources at the command of the office of the superintendent of schools for getting in touch with remunerative and wholesome employment should be used to their advantage. And so a thoro canvass was inaugurated to supplement their efforts. Letters were sent to all the farmers within a radius of five or more miles. Practically every business man was importuned in their behalf. The homes were invaded in search of employment. The daily newspapers and the telephones were used to advertise their needs and the desires of the boys and girls. Their right to work was argued; school attendance in the future was given as a reason for the community's interest in them. But on the whole the results of this campaign were disappointing and disheartening. The farmers refused to employ them on the ground that city boys and girls would be useless in farm work and that they did not care to undertake to teach them during the season of the year when planting and harvesting demanded undivided attention and energy. The merchants admitted the justice of the claim of these boys and girls, but told us that the request for employment came at the very dullest season of the year, and that instead of more help they actually needed less. The mothers in the homes answered by saying that the girls were too young and too immature to undertake the arduous duties that often fall to the lot of the servant in the house. So here they were, nearly a thousand strong, standing on the threshold of a three months' vacation, without hope of joining the army of toilers and wage-earners, facing a long season of idleness and comparative inactivity. Some of them came from homes so miserable that the average schoolroom would be regarded as a place of luxury in comparison. Many of them were living in the midst of surroundings that afforded no opportunity for recreation, and where there was no hope of either social uplift or moral health or spiritual inspiration. Some of them were dominated by the influence of men and women compared to whom the average teacher would appear as an angel of light. Here was this fruitful field of youth without educational opportunity during the most fruitful season of the year.

Before the summer was over some of these same boys and girls, who had lookt out upon the coming vacation with hearts hungering and thirsting for a chance, had received the attention of the juvenile court, not because they were criminal, but because they were without the opportunities of satisfying in a wholesome way that hunger and thirst for life. Before the vacation had past many of them had become a burden to their own homes, not because of lack of filial affection, but because both father and mother, compelled to join the ranks of factory toilers, were helpless in their efforts to discharge the usual parental obligations to their children in a vital and wholesome way. Idleness and inactivity had entered to compromise their efforts. For the most part all of them had lost a step or two in the educational progress of which they were capable, and when September called

them again to enter upon the activities of school life they returned poorer physically, intellectually, spiritually than when they had left in June. Three months in their lives had been largely wasted, and while the husbandman slept the enemy had sown tares during the summer time.

Since then the doors of the schools of Mason City have been kept open twelve months in the year; for thru the open door of the school we hope to save the educational waste that results from three months of idleness and inactivity. In this way we hope to express more fully our belief in the childhood to which we are responsible. The plan was inaugurated because we believe that it is the great mission of the school to promote the completest and richest development of youth, whatever the season of the year or the hour of the day. The year was lengthened because we believe that the school in its organization and community support is the most vital agent in ministering to the welfare of youth, and because we believe that the ministering processes are as important one season as another.

There was a time not far distant when every boy and girl, practically speaking, could find within reach the opportunities, either thru work or play, for educational advancement during the summer time without the help of the school. The varied activities of farm and fireside, of field and forest, of village green where healthful sports called loud and long, supplemented the work of the schoolroom, and in them all and thru them all there was ever maintained for the child a well-balanst educational program, not only during certain seasons of the year, but during all the seasons of the year. There was an all-year-round educational process going on that tended to promote wholesome physical, intellectual, and spiritual development.

But for millions of children those days are no more; into their lives no such blessings fall. The all-year-round school is Mason City's attempt to solve that problem. It has come, we believe, to discharge an obligation to the boys and girls—and there are many of them in Mason City—whose fathers and mothers have neither the time nor the talent to supply wholesome conditions of growth, whose environments and opportunities do not make for adequate activity either thru work or play.

In this brief statement I do not suggest any particular form of school activity. That should be dependent upon need. Any form of school activity that will help boys and girls to realize in fullness the possibilities of childhood and youth is the ideal which we should set for ourselves. The needs of the child should and must determine all the activities of the school and must be the paramount issue in determining the type of either work or play. In this effort to supply all the vital needs of the child *play* may be the dominant factor in the organized activities of the school; industrial training may find the most important place; a study of community life may be the vital issue; nature and communion with her varied forms may be the point of emphasis. All these—and perhaps more—must have consideration. The need is the determining factor.

Believing that the summer months present special needs and offer new opportunities, we in Mason City have endeavored to build a school program on somewhat different lines from those which obtain during the other months of the year. We may have come far short of reaching the ideal that we have set for ourselves, but at least we are trying to find a solution for the problem that confronted us when we undertook to meet the needs of the child thru the summer season. Perhaps experience will teach us wisdom, and perhaps the program of the future will be wholly unlike the ones of the past two years. However, it may be of some interest to know something of our plans during the time that the all-year-round school has been in our program of educational activities.

The forenoon session, which began at eight o'clock and continued until noon was devoted to the activities that are connected with a pursuance of the ordinary academic subjects, together with a liberal amount of supervised play. The afternoon was devoted to supervised play, field sports, folk games, nature excursions, geography excursions, gardening, manual training, household and applied arts, hikes, picnics, etc. Each teacher, with a few possible exceptions, guided both the forenoon and the afternoon activities, for which she received the same remuneration as during previous months. The school year was divided into four quarters of twelve weeks each, the work of these quarters being necessary for promotion from one grade to another. Pupils were admitted to every grade including the kindergarten and the high school, and they came from the homes of the rich as well as the poor. The first year about 33 per cent of the number who had enroled during the previous nine months of the year enroled for the summer session; last year about 40 per cent of the previous enrolment was registered. The average attendance was not as satisfactory as during September and May, but was better than the attendance during the months of December, January, and February. The average cost for teaching was greater, altho the contingent expenses were very much reduced. Counting every phase of the cost, including interest on otherwise unused school property, the average cost per pupil was less during the summer session than during other months of the year. From many standpoints the summer session was the most delightful of all the quarters of the year. It is at the season for wide-open windows and doors, for outdoor play activities. For most of the children the schoolhouses were more comfortable by far than their own homes. There was no problem of contagious diseases. The heat was no more distressing than the cold of winter. At first the summer session was objected to on account of health considerations. Many parents thought that it was placing too great a burden upon the child to attend school during the entire twelve months of the year, but experience has shown the fallacy of that objection. Instead of being injurious to health there were many instances where the opposite was true. Besides, no school can justify itself whose requirements and operation ever place the health of the child

in jeopardy. I am old-fashioned enough to believe that *natural* growth and development are not burdensome, nor are the forces that contribute to that end. Growth is not a burdensome process; nature does not require long vacations.

In closing, permit me to say that there are perplexing problems in the administration of the all-year-round school, three groups for each grade in the smaller schools being one of the most perplexing. Yet there have been many happy surprises, and in the light of two years' experience I am glad to say that I believe that it is worthy of any thoughtful superintendent's most serious consideration. The open schoolroom door during twelve months of the year has been a big thing for hundreds of Mason City children.

B. CONSERVATION OF RESOURCES—SCHOOL SAVINGS BANKS AND THRIFT EDUCATION

ARVIE ELDRED, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, TROY, N.Y.

People in the United States are just beginning to realize the old saying that "a penny saved is a penny earned." The world-war with all its horrors is teaching us the value of thrift. The United States has the highest wage scale and the least number of savings-bank depositors in proportion to population of any civilized nation. As a nation we have been a profligate lot. The boundless wealth and natural resources of the country have led the people to be great spenders and wasters. We have been content with the necessities of the present and have given little thought to the future. This war is bringing us to our senses. We are now being made to realize that we are poor. We have not laid up anything for a rainy day and we feel the pinch.

We were brought face to face with a real serious condition when the Fuel Administrator, on January 16, ordered a general closing of industry for five days. Immediately a cry of despair went up. What were people to do? How could they live if their incomes were to be cut off for five days? All our lives we had gone along living extravagantly, spending every cent, and giving no thought to the future. It was a terrible shock and we were not ready for it. I venture to say that we shall get a far worse shock before this war is over, unless it ends very soon. But this first shock alone should be enough to make us all realize that calamities and disasters will happen. We have had business depressions in the past, but they have come and gone gradually and we have not felt their force. Tho it is freely predicted that we shall never have another great financial panic, yet we are bound to have dull times and long periods of scanty production, and we must be prepared to meet such times.

We can do little perhaps toward teaching the wage-earner of this generation to save, but we can teach the wage-earner of the next generation to save.

After this war no doubt will come a period of great prosperity. If we are not careful we shall do as we have done in the past—spend every cent and lay nothing by for the future. I believe that this can be prevented if our children are taught in the schools how to save and to acquire the "saving habit."

In 1914 there were in the United States about eleven million depositors in savings banks, with deposits of about five billion dollars. In 1912 Great Britain had fourteen million depositors and about one billion deposits. France had fourteen and one-half million depositors and about one and one-half billion deposits. Germany had twenty-three million depositors and four and one-half billions in deposits.

When the population of the United States is compared with the population of Great Britain, France, or Germany the showing of savings-bank depositors in the United States becomes very poor. Within the United States the ratio of depositors to population varies. In New England the ratio is large, while in the West it is very small. These differences are no doubt due to the characteristics of the people. The "Yankee" of New England has been noted for his thrift.

Reports show that 80 per cent of the people in this country die leaving no income-producing assets. Furthermore there are at the present time one and one-half million former wage-earners who did not provide for the future being supported at public expense.

It is readily demonstrated then that the people of the United States have not learned the habit of saving. There is no doubt that *economy* and *thrift* are habits. Inasmuch as habit can best be taught in youth, therefore national economy and thrift should have a place in our school program. The simplest kind of thrift for schools is the school bank. Here the stray penny or nickel can be deposited by the child before it can be spent on some useless trash.

There are many systems of school banks, all of which have their good features. The simpler the system the better, if its machinery will reach the children. The system in use in our city is similar to the one in use in several other places. Our laws require that a savings bank, if there be one in the city, be the depository of the school bank money. We have a savings bank in our city and it is giving the schools the heartiest cooperation. It provides all forms and the books needed and helps us in every way it can.

A certain day is known thruout the schools as "Banking Day." It is Monday as a rule. During a regular class-period, preferably the arithmetic period, the children deposit the money. Each teacher keeps the record of deposits of her own class. She is assisted by two or more pupils, as she elects—a teller and a bookkeeper, at least. The pupils in turn come to the desk and make their deposits. When the deposits are all in and the money counted and verified the classroom teacher sends them to the principal, who is the trustee for the school. Here the total entries are made,

children assisting with the task. The books are balanst, and the principal deposits the money in the savings bank in his name as trustee. As soon as a child has one dollar deposited in the school bank he is given a "thrift bond," similar to a "bank draft," by the principal. He takes this bond to the savings bank and opens an account in the bank in his own name. His account begins to draw interest as soon as he has five dollars in the bank. Our experience has been that a child's first thrill comes when he gets his school bank book, his second when he gets the savings bank book, and his third and greatest when he sees in red ink his credited interest in this savings bank book.

The system requires quite a lot of clerical work, but it is so simple that children can do it, and the fact that children can do the work is an excellent point, because it not only creates more interest on the part of the children to save, but gives them training in accuracy and business practices.

As a rule, teachers are conservative; they do not want a lot of burdens added to their already overloaded school day. Our teachers felt the same way at first with regard to our school banks, but it was not long before they saw the great good that was resulting from the thrift habit: less gum, less candy, etc., was in evidence about the school. Altho we did not care to have a spirit of rivalry fostered, it sprang up nevertheless. The parents soon saw the value of such a plan, and I had several parents tell me that it was the first time that any of the family had ever saved money. Now they are saving it thru the children's deposits in the school bank. The idea spread and we have on our books the names of several children who are too young to enter school. The parents are making deposits for them regularly. Many teachers also are regular depositors in the school bank.

The trustees of the savings bank were rather skeptical at first about the success of the school bank. But the number of depositors in our school bank has steadily grown, altho during the past year the amount of money deposited each month has remained about the same. This is due, no doubt, to the rapid increase in the cost of living, and to the fact also of the great number of persons subscribing to the first and second Liberty Loans on the weekly payment plan. It is interesting to note in this connection the fact that in the second Liberty Loan campaign more than $40,000 was subscribed thru our school bank. Many children had saved enough to pay for their bonds outright; the rest are buying them now with their weekly savings going thru our school bank. In this way our children were able to do their bit and show their patriotism, and I know that it was a source of gratification to every youngster to know that the money that he had saved could be lent to the government in this time of peril.

At this point I wish to emphasize the fact that money can be deposited only in our school bank. We allow no one to draw money out. That must be done thru the savings bank. You see we make it easy for children to save and deposit money, but rather difficult for them to draw out and spend.

Thus far I have dealt mainly with the first part of my topic. I wish to say something now about thrift education as it applies to savings other than money. One of the best lessons in thrift is to teach children how to eliminate waste, not only at home, but in the classroom. Some children are naturally thrifty, others are naturally wasteful. The teacher should be a living example before the child. He should see to it that supplies and materials are not wasted, regardless of whether the child or the education department buys them. Children can be taught to be thrifty by gathering waste material about the home and the school, and turning it into money. Children should be made to realize that our most successful business corporations are making big profit by properly disposing of their waste material. If it is profitable for a corporation, it is also profitable for the individual, to give attention to waste material.

One of the biggest lessons to be learned today is "food production" and "food consumption." We are told that "food will win the war," and with our wheatless, meatless, porkless, and sugarless days we are beginning to realize the importance of food. But only a year ago how many thought much about these things? We have been in the habit of eating what we wanted, as much as we wanted, and when we wanted, and never expected in this great land of ours that there would be a "food shortage." But what can our schools do to aid in the production of food? Just the thing that was done in many places this past year—give attention to *vacant lots* and *back yards*, heretofore thought of as so much waste land fit for nothing productive. One of the best lessons in thrift can be to teach the children how to make these lots productive. In our city we had over 2,000 such lots under cultivation last summer, and I am sure that we will have more this summer. Boys and girls are not only taught thrift here by using waste land, but they become interested and the long vacation is used for some profitable end. The child is kept out of mischief and the family is supplied with good, fresh vegetables all season long. One of the best places to teach thrift in school is in the domestic science departments. The old adage "A woman can throw out more with a spoon than a man can bring in in a shovel" is still true. Mr. Hoover tells us that $700,000,000 worth of food is wasted every year in our kitchens. Much of this waste can be eliminated now if the proper instruction is given to the girls of today along the lines of buying and preparing foods.

In the matter of clothing our girls can be taught how to economize and avoid waste. This war is teaching us to get greater use of clothing. Many an article has been brought from the attic, where it was only food for moths or merchandise for the "rag man," and made over for wear. Much of the war work in the schools in our city has been devoted to this line, and it is gratifying to see how eagerly the girls have taken it up.

The Red Cross and Junior Red Cross are not only doing a splendid work for today, but they are doing a work that will have infinite results for

the future. Our women had lost the art of using their hands—they had never learned how to use the needle. They have learned now. Our children are learning now, and I hope that every child in America will join this Junior Red Cross, not only for what the organization can do now, but for what it will mean for the future. I am glad that we have 100 per cent membership in the schools of our city.

I might mention other ways and other means of teaching thrift, for there are many others. The ones I have mentioned are important and also successful. The important thing is to teach thrift in its broad sense in the schools. We cannot have too much of it. We should try constantly to have our children practice the habit of self-denial. The feeling that they have something in reserve will take away much of the nerve strain that is common to the "high-strung" American people. This reserve can be obtained only by systematic saving and strict economy. We should keep these ideas before our children if we want to bring up a nation of strong and independent individuals.

C. *INCREAST FOOD PRODUCTION—HOME GARDENING*

ELMER C. SHERMAN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ENGLEWOOD, N.J.

A great war, a great national emergency, has served to discover to us that some things urged as war measures have an educational value of which we are not aware or of which we have not made use. It can hardly happen that after the war we shall not profit by the lessons we are now learning. I find myself unable to consider gardening as a war problem except as the war has emphasized its importance and has revealed it to us as an economic and educational problem worthy of serious consideration among the permanent phases of school work.

The first of the many activities in which the schools were askt to aid in the conduct of the war was that of increasing the food supply of the country. With no experience to guide them and with little time to formulate plans, educational administrators, with the hearty cooperation of teachers and pupils, attackt the problem with earnestness and with no small measure of success. Boys and girls in many states were excused from school and set to work to aid the farmers and the market gardeners; here and there patriotic cities and towns undertook community gardening in which the labor of children unable to leave home was utilized; the cultivation of back yards and vacant lots was increast manyfold, partly by adults, but in very large degree by children; and canning, the necessary corollary of this back-yard gardening, was revived or learned for the first time by many thousands of housewives and their children helpers, and became an important household industry everywhere. Of all the ways in which the schools aided in increasing the food supply of the nation, the two last-named—home gardening and

canning—bid fair to increase greatly while the war lasts and to become a permanent and valuable phase of school training.

If gardening as a school subject is to be a success, whether from an economic or an educational standpoint, it must be organized as other school work is organized; it must be recognized as a legitimate and desirable subject of the school curriculum. Garden clubs have their places in arousing interest and enthusiasm, in demonstrating what can be done by boys and girls, in giving this new field of school effort a start. But they reach as a rule only those who have a natural interest in the matter—those who have the greatest amount of enthusiasm, of perseverance, and of imagination. They will not serve to make a practical knowledge of gardening the possession of all boys and girls any more than geography clubs would give to all school children an adequate knowledge of the earth on which we live. Successful gardening means something more than the possession of a plot of ground and some seeds. The assumption that anyone can raise a garden is a mistake. The cultivation of the soil is both a science and an art. It requires knowledge and skill based upon the application of that knowledge.

In the organization of gardening there is needed first a supervisor. This should be a man or a woman with practical knowledge of the subject, with initiative, with contagious enthusiasm, with teaching power. Such a person should be employed for the entire school year with a vacation of a month or two in midwinter instead of in midsummer as in the case of other teachers. Any town of ten thousand people or upward, and even some smaller cities, can profitably employ a garden supervisor on such a basis. No other teacher will be able to show such direct results of his work in dollars and cents.

Three very distinct phases of the training of pupils in gardening must be distinguisht. These are instruction, demonstration, and supervision of the home garden. Each of these is an essential part of an efficient plan.

1. *Instruction.*—Classroom instruction should be given thruout the school year to all pupils of Grades V to VIII with one lesson, or better two lessons, per week. A course in gardening should be offered in the high school as a part of the science course. In smaller places most of this instruction will be given by the supervisor; in larger places it must be given wholly or in part by class teachers or assistants, but under the direction of the supervisor, who will plan most carefully the course in respect to both content and method. This course will consider plant life, soil, fertilizers, rainfall and irrigation, birds and insects, in their relation to the farm and garden. The course will correlate with drawing in laying out the garden and drawing to scale a diagram; with arithmetic when children are taught to keep their garden accounts neatly and accurately and to estimate profit and loss; and with shopwork in the construction of hotbeds, cold frames, and germination beds. Thus classroom instruction carefully and wisely planned, laying the foundation for the actual out-of-doors work and linkt closely to other

subjects of the curriculum, is essential to any permanent success in making gardening a worth-while school subject.

2. *Demonstration.*—There should be attacht to each school a plot of ground to be cultivated as a demonstration garden. If possible it should be on the school grounds or adjacent to them. If not, a vacant lot should be obtained for the purpose as near as may be to the school. When the time for making gardens comes many of the indoor lessons will be transferred to this garden where the children will be shown how to prepare the soil, how to plant the seeds, and how to care for the young plants. All this will have for its ultimate purpose, not the demonstration garden itself, but the hundreds of back-yard gardens scattered about the community, which the children are about to cultivate for themselves.

In addition to the demonstration garden and for a similar purpose other equipment is needed for the winter when out-of-door work cannot be done. Hotbeds and cold frames should be constructed. Wherever possible a room should be set aside as a sort of garden laboratory—a workroom where winter planting could be done in connection with the hotbeds, where germination could be studied, where experiments with soils and with fertilizers could be conducted. Such work, even of the most elementary character, would be of the greatest value as a part of the instruction in this subject. A greenhouse would of course be the ideal equipment for this course.

3. *Supervision of the home garden.*—We must not assume that after the child has received instruction at school he will proceed to cultivate a successful garden without further oversight, advice, and encouragement. We ought to know children too well to believe anything of the kind. The seeds will not come up, the weeds will get ahead of him, his dog or his neighbor's chickens will scratch up a part of the garden. He doesn't know what to do when something unexpected happens. He gets discouraged and quits. All the effort that has been made to teach him is thus lost. He suffers morally too from the fact that he has failed to persevere and has abandoned a project undertaken perhaps with much enthusiasm. His garden, therefore, should be regularly visited by a sympathetic, helpful inspector who will encourage him when he is getting discouraged, spur him on when he is getting careless, help him when he is in difficulty. Such visits should be made once a week until the garden is well under way. As gardening is assumed to be a school subject for which regular school credit is to be given, the inspector will at each visit give a mark to indicate the faithfulness of the work done and the appearance of the garden.

The matter of inspection furnishes the most difficult problem in carrying out our plan. The difficulty is of two kinds: (1) Where shall we find the inspectors and (2) can we afford the cost? The most valuable persons to employ would be the teachers who know the children and know how to deal with them. It seems probable that teachers could be found in almost every school who would undertake this work with enthusiasm. There are in every

community people of comparative leisure who are ready to help in a project promising so much of value as this, and who might therefore be used for inspectional work.

The cost of properly organizing the work in gardening so that it may produce the maximum amount of food and have the maximum educational value is considerable. But it will pay. If we are to help the nation to the fullest extent of our ability in increasing the food supply, if we are to train our children in a valuable way thru this work, and if we are to make a knowledge of gardening function in a useful way in their lives as men and women, we must adopt a serious plan, we must organize it thoroly, we must, in short, devote as much thought, as much care, and relatively as much money to it as we do in the case of the older and better-recognized subjects of instruction.

D. A PRACTICAL PROGRAM OF PATRIOTIC INSTRUCTION

FRANCIS G. BLAIR, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, SPRINGFIELD, ILL.

It is as impossible to define patriotism as it is to paint a picture of your mother. In a sense patriotism is an atmosphere. It is an emotion, a habit of thought, an attitude of mind. We may, by pedagogic device, create the atmosphere, but the thing itself must spring from within. In this war crisis there are some well-meaning persons who, impatient with the slow processes of education, seem to think that patriotism can be called forth by command, by fiat—that our emotions and spiritual attitudes can be commandeered like our physical properties. They seem to think that patriotism of the right brand can be manufactured by some special plan or method of instruction. To be sure, a right attitude toward it and a proper appreciation of it can be aroused, but it can hardly be compelled. One may be encouraged to see and think and feel and act patriotically, but it can hardly be thrust upon him.

Fortunately, in a time like this, when the very air we breathe quivers with national emotion and national spirit, we have our best motive and our best condition for creating thru education the atmosphere of patriotism in the home and the school. How may we use the mighty impulse of this great hour in our national life to beget in our children a deeper and sounder love for our own country without engendering a hatred for other countries? How may we arouse an appreciation of, and a faith in, the ideals and purposes of our own institutions without firing them with a bigoted zeal to thrust these institutions upon other peoples?

The purpose of such work is a noble one and the prospect is full of hope, altho hardly free from difficulties and dangers. What educational devices may we use to arouse patriotic emotions and translate these emotions into

habits of thought and deeds? Flag raisings and salutes, flag drills, patriotic music and songs, addresses and readings presenting national ideals in an appealing form, all these have been tried and have proved their power to stir deeply the emotions of children. Too often, however, we have filled them with feeling without furnishing them with practical means for expressing it in thought and deeds.

The flag drills and salutes and the singing by the children offer agreeable and worth-while expressions of their emotions. The committing to memory of good selections and reciting them has distinct values. A high-school girl at the opening exercises tells the story of Alan Seeger, the English poet who, as a volunteer soldier, gave his life on the battle front. In conclusion she refers to the poem he wrote while in the trenches entitled, "I Have a Rendezvous with Death." When she concludes a high-school boy dressed in khaki stands forth and recites those lines:

I have a rendezvous with Death
At some disputed barricade,
When Spring comes back with rustling shade
And apple-blossoms fill the air—
I have a rendezvous with Death
When Spring brings back blue days and fair.

It may be he shall take my hand
And lead me into his dark land
And close my eyes and quench my breath—
It may be I shall pass him still.
But I've a rendezvous with Death
On some scarred slope of battered hill,
When Spring comes round again this year
And the first meadow flowers appear.

God knows 'twere better to be deep
Pillowed in silk and scented down,
Where Love throbs out in blissful sleep,
Pulse nigh to pulse, and breath to breath,
Where hushed awakenings are dear . . . .
But I've a rendezvous with Death,
At midnight in some flaming town,
When Spring trips north again this year,
And I to my pledged word am true,
I shall not fail that rendezvous.

An eighth-grade boy, after telling how he thought this war was going to reunite the North and South and stating that the grandson of General Grant and the grandson of General Lee were both fighting side by side on the battle front in France, recites the following lines:

Here's to the blue of the wind-swept North,
As they meet on the fields of France!
May the spirit of Grant be over them all
As the sons of the North advance!

Here's to the gray of the sun-kissed South,
As they meet on the fields of France!
May the spirit of Lee be over them all
As the sons of the South advance!

Here's to the blue and the gray as one,
As they meet on the fields of France!
May the spirit of God be over them all
As the sons of the flag advance!

Letters written to soldiers in the field and to children in the allied countries offer a good way for giving shape and expression to the children's aroused patriotism. I doubt whether anyone has come nearer to phrasing the real meaning of this war than a sixteen-year-old girl in a French secondary school in Paris. Mr. John H. Finley, commissioner of New York state, brought it back with him from his recent visit. Being translated it is:

It was only a little river, almost a brook; it was called the Yser. One could talk from one side to the other without raising one's voice, and the birds could fly over it with one sweep of their wings. And on the two banks there were millions of men the one turned toward the other, eye to eye. But the distance which separated them was greater than the stars in the sky; it was the distance which separates right from injustice.

The ocean is so vast that the seagulls do not dare to cross it. During seven days and nights the great steamships of America, going full speed, drive through the deep waters before the lighthouses of France come into view; but from one side to another the hearts are touching.

The drawing of pictures and posters has furnisht effective modes of expression.

But it is thru three organizations that some of the most practical patriotic instruction is being carried on:

The Boy Scouts is an organization antedating this war, but the coming of the war has put a new spirit and a new character into it. These lads in the khaki uniform find ready and fruitful ways for translating their fine ideals into deeds. How willingly their hands and feet carry a thousand messages a day to Garcia! How keenly they feel the spirit of the hour, how gladly they accept responsibility, and how nobly they perform their duties!

The United States Boys' Working Reserve is an organization born out of the strain of this war. It is shot thru and thru with the most patriotic purposes and possibilities. It lacks the uniform and the dress-parade features of the Boy Scouts. It is practical in every way. Its members are parts of an army, to be sure, but they are a working, shirt-sleeve, sweating, hungry, toiling, whistling sort of an army. There may not be much glamor or glory in milking a cow, in driving a cultivator, in greasing the harness, in slopping the pigs, but it may be the most direct way of serving one's country and carrying aid to our Allies and distress to our enemies.

The Junior Red Cross offers perhaps the best of all forms of organization for practical, worth-while patriotic activity for all our children. It includes boys and girls alike. It enters the private as well as the public

schools. Every grade in every school may become a Junior Red Cross chapter. It offers the best means for coordinating and consolidating all the war demands made upon our schools. Would you sell War Saving Stamps? Let the Junior Red Cross chapter do it. Would you float Liberty Bonds, carry coal and food tags, hang posters, get up a parade, or give a patriotic program? The Junior Red Cross stands ready to carry out every one. Would you send a sweet remembrance to a mother whose son is on the firing-line? A committee of girls from the Junior Red Cross chapter of the third grade carries a bouquet of flowers with the simple statement that the members are giving a little to her who has given so much for them. Does a yard need mowing because the hands which did it last summer are now carrying a musket in France? Two boys from the eighth grade rattle down the street with a lawn mower and somewhat abruptly announce to the soldier's wife or mother that they have come to mow down the grass while the soldier is away mowing down the enemies of our country.

In some such ways as these we may create the atmosphere of patriotism, arouse the emotions, and translate the patriotism into habits of thought and attitudes of mind and heart.

DISCUSSION

A. E. WINSHIP, editor, *Journal of Education*, Boston, Mass.—The American schools have never appreciated the necessity of patriotic instruction. It has been assumed that it was all-sufficient that children come to school, get assigned lessons, behave themselves, and salute the flag appropriately. We have called the public school the melting-pot of all nationalities. Mary Antin's "Promised Land" has been the culminating testimony to the efficiency of the schools patriotically. But the moment America entered the world-war it became evident that some of the children who had been in the melting-pot had not been adequately melted, that patriotism had not always been developt. Practically all close observers of children in school and out agree that something is lacking in the patriotic instruction of the public schools. Whatever else the world-war has done, or left undone, it has already taught us that we cannot longer be an isolated nation, that we can no longer live to ourselves alone, that the famous Monroe Doctrine would have no more significance than a sheet of paper unless we had some power other than the pen that wrote it.

It was the greatest shock the New World ever received when it was known that Kaiser William proposed to divide up a large slice of the United States between Mexico and Japan, and that he deliberately told us that our ships could not sail the sea except by going where he chose to allow them to go. No pig in a pen or hen in a coop was ever more insolently treated than was the United States by the Kaiser. For nearly three years there was not patriotism enough anywhere in America to resent insults, to check treachery, to help the only red-blooded nations who cared or dared to challenge the treachery, butchery, and debauchery of the Huns. The moment there was adequate patriotism officially there was discovered unanticipated disloyalty even in schools and colleges, much of it bordering on treason. There were Ethan Allens and Israel Putnams. There were Paul Reveres and Mad Anthony Waynes, but, alas, there were Benedict Arnolds. Now we know that the public schools must teach patriotism effectively just as we know that we must win this war, whatever the sacrifice of life and treasure. The only question is, How?

The first element in patriotism is the absolute unity of sentiment among all the nations that are fighting side by side. This is a principle as old as man. Loyalty to each other is the first law of patriotism. Whoever helps us win this war is, to all intents and

purposes, American. Briton, Italian, Frenchman, is in this struggle American, and no man is a loyal American who is not now a loyal Briton, Italian, Frenchman. This means that we must take out of all school history every paragraph that would revive the prejudices of the Revolutionary War. We must not teach our children to glory in the evacuation of Boston or the surrender of Cornwallis.

There can be no patriotism that does not cement in closest bonds all sections of the United States. Whoever goes to Camp Robert E. Lee in Virginia, and Camp John B. Gordon in Georgia, to Camp Phil Sheridan in Alabama, and John A. Logan in Texas, who sees southern boys at Camp Devens in Massachusetts, and at Camp Grant in Illinois, who realizes that the late congressman Gardner of Massachusetts insisted upon being an officer in a Georgia regiment, can but see that the last year has done much toward unifying patriotic American sentiment. Let all teachers in the North put the soft pedal on Gettysburg and Appomattox and all teachers of the South couple the names of Grant and Lee a little more sympathetically.

When the Mormon University students at Provo, Utah, contribute $2300 to the Y.M.C.A. work in France we can but feel disgusted at any attempt to arouse commercial prejudice against Utahans. Whoever does so is disloyal to every patriotic requirement of the hour. Patriotism is all-Americanism, and all disloyalty is traitorous. Patriotism means that we are members one of another. There is no other nation where this is required as it is in the United States, and never here as now. Patriotism means an absolute blending of pride locally and pride nationally, in devotion locally and devotion nationally. There is no patriotism that ends with state or sectional pride or devotion, and there is no patriotism that does not begin with local and sectional pride and devotion.

The United States is an arch. We shout about the keystone of an arch as that which binds the stones into an arch, but remove every other stone from the arch and you have no arch. Each block is made for its place and is indispensable in its place. Georgia is the Empire State of the South as New York is the Empire State of the North. If Georgians whined because they were not New Yorkers and New Yorkers because they were not Georgians, neither of them would be American. No man is an American who is not a loyal Carolinian, Oregonian, or Utahan. Nothing but federal loyalty is the end of real patriotism. Look at Mexico, a pretended republic, at Russia, a would-be republic, and you see what America would be if local loyalty were not merged in federal loyalty.

Patriotic instruction must be concrete rather than abstract. It must be patriotism in action rather than merely in words. Patrotism is not lip service. Patriotism in school must begin with school spirit, broadening into community spirit, into state spirit, into sectional spirit, and then, with intensity heightened and thereto glorified, into American spirit. There is no place for individualism in patriotism. There is no loyalty, no patriotism in an individualist any more than there is in a slacker or a deserter. The student who is a slacker in athletic loyalty because there is something or somebody he does not like is training for disloyalty, if not treason, nationally. The student who sulks because there is something he does not like is a slacker in training for a traitor. Individualism in action is on the road to disloyalty if not to the rank of traitor. There can be no government built up by individualists. Traitors, like patriots, are often made in school. In every school every day there should be definite, explicit, emphatic teaching of the things worth stressing in American life. Industrially, commercially, financially, educationally, there are numerous things that should be ardently taught in every school. But over and above everything else every child should be taught the inherent difference between absolutism and democracy, and between democracy and anarchism. Unfortunately socialism means so many different things that it cannot be used as a school term, but anarchy is so distinctly vicious that every child in America should know that it is not democracy. Democracy is the only form of government that is representative of the will of the majority. Autocracy and anarchy are alike in their refusal to allow the people to rule. American patriotism can only mean the genuine triumph of real democracy.

F. CONFERENCE ON COMPULSORY EDUCATION, SCHOOL CENSUS, AND CHILD WELFARE

ENFORCEMENT OF THE UNITED STATES CHILD LABOR LAW

GRACE ABBOTT, DIRECTOR, CHILD LABOR DIVISION, CHILDREN'S BUREAU, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, WASHINGTON, D.C.

In order to make the best use of this opportunity of presenting to the Department of Superintendence the problems which the Child Labor Division is meeting in the enforcement of the federal Child Labor law, I should like to divide the time allotted to me into the discussion of (1) some administrative problems on which your help is needed, and (2) some general considerations as to the enforcement of child-labor and compulsory-education laws at this time.

With reference to the administrative problems the United States Child Labor act, which is the first step in national legislation affecting social and industrial conditions, fixes a minimum standard below which the nation has said it cannot afford to have local standards go.

It is generally agreed that a good child-labor law should establish an educational minimum, a physical minimum, and an age minimum which a child must reach before he is graduated from the training period of his life into the wage-earning period. The United States Child Labor law, as you know, does not fix any educational or physical standards. The age and hour standards which it lays down are not as high as the standards which the statutes of a number of states require, are practically identical with a larger number, and are higher than the standards of some states. It is assumed by many that only the southern textile states belong to this last group, but as a matter of fact the children of other states will prosper by the law. In the great industrial states of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, and Ohio the standards are as high or higher than the federal. In Connecticut and Rhode Island the children between fourteen and sixteen who are employed in industries shipping in interstate or foreign commerce have had their work day in effect reduced from ten to eight hours as a result of the law; in Maine and Pennsylvania the nine-hour day for little children in factories is a thing of the past. The canneries in which so many thousands of children are employed have been exempted under the state child-labor laws in such important canning states as Delaware, Indiana, Maryland, Michigan, and Virginia. Instead of being exempt, canneries are specifically included under the terms of the federal act.

A number of states which have nominally a fourteen-year standard allow children to work on poverty-exemption permits granted usually by a county or juvenile court. The United States Child Labor act provides for no such exemptions. Vacation permits for children under fourteen years of age are also not recognized by the federal law.

The federal act contemplates administrative cooperation between federal and state officers. Section 4 of the act makes it the duty of the United States District Attorney to prosecute on any violations of the act reported by state factory, mining, and medical inspectors and local school-attendance officers. Section 5 and Regulation 3, provide for the acceptance of work permits or certificates issued by local authorities in states designated by the United States Child Labor Board; such designation is to be made only if the requirements of the act and of Regulation 2 with reference to evidence of age are substantially complied with by the local certificating authorities.

In this connection it should be stated that the federal certificate is not a work permit as is the state certificate. It constitutes under Section 5 of the federal act a protection against prosecution to the employer who has procured it in good faith and employed the child in the belief that he was of the age given in the certificate.

I do not need to say to you that a double certificating system—by both state and federal authorities—is undesirable. It is not only wasteful in the expenditure of public funds, but entails additional expense and inconvenience for both children and employers. On the other hand, for a satisfactory administration of the United States Child Labor law, certain minimum standards must be uniformly observed.

As the designation is by states it is necessary that there be a *state* standard in certificate issuing. Owing to the fact that in most of the states the issuance of certificates is locally controlled, there is in most states no such thing as a state standard. I do not need to tell you that in such states our inspectors find that in one city the issuance of certificates is carefully and thoroly done, while in the next town the law is sometimes flagrantly violated by an issuing officer who does not believe in records, or evidence, or any system of checking up the children. It is perhaps not to be expected or even desired that there shall be absolute uniformity in these matters inside a state, but certainly the state should make sure that no community drops below a certain level. This can be accomplisht only by some measure of state supervision and state control. Inasmuch as the issuance of certificates is in the hands of the school authorities in thirty-four states, this means that some state supervision and control of the issuance of certificates by the local school authorities and of the local enforcement of compulsory-education laws are essential.

I cannot exaggerate the importance of this matter of the careful and thoro issuing of certificates, which is in most places under your control. It is thru the issuing of certificates that an opportunity is given to ascertain for every child *before his employment* whether or not he should be employed under the law. So far as the enforcement of the child-labor law is concerned, inspection is little more than a check-up on the effectiveness of the issuing system and a reenforcement of the community's respect for the law.

Probably you are quite thoroly aware that officers who are charged with the enforcement of child-labor laws often complain of the lack of cooperation on the part of the school authorities. They contend that school principals are sometimes willing to violate the law by issuing certificates which they know should not be issued because they find that the children are not making progress in the schools, or because they think that their earnings are needed at home and they want to do what they can to help out the child. There has, of course, been in the past all too little appreciation on the part of teachers of the problems of industry. In the absence of vocational schools they have sometimes felt that industrial education could be acquired thru a job. They have not appreciated the fact that the mill or factory is organized, not for training, but for profit, and that the child who is allowed to enter because he did not make his grade in arithmetic or grammar does so at great physical and educational sacrifices. Some teachers have been too ready to accept child labor as a cure for dependency, and yet it is generally agreed that child labor merely perpetuates poverty and must go if the father is going to be able to get wages which will enable him to support his family. We all know that the community cannot afford to rely upon children to support the widows or the injured or unemployed fathers. On the other hand, school officers frequently complain of the cooperation they receive from factory inspectors. They say that the respect for the certificating depends upon a check-up by someone who inspects the factory or manufacturing establishment, and that too often the inspector is altogether indifferent as to whether a manufacturer has on file certificates issued for him or for some other concern, and refuses to prosecute for failure on the part of the employer to live up strictly to the requirements of the certificating law.

It seems necessary at this time to say something as to the vigilance which is necessary in the enforcement of child-labor and compulsory-education laws in view of the demands which the prosecution of the war is making upon our resources. When the declaration of war was made by the United States some Americans tried to urge as a new war measure their old demand that all limitations of the hours of work for men and women must be abolisht and that the minimum age at which children can be employed must be lowered. These were the same people who had opposed the enactment of this legislation in peace times. In the confusion which came during the first months of the war the source of this demand was, however, not generally understood, and some superintendents and boards of education lent their support to it on patriotic grounds. The statements made by the President of the United States, the Secretary of War, and the Secretary of the Navy, as well as the Secretary of Labor, have since made it very clear to the public that there is no demand on the part of the government for a relaxation of child-labor standards, that on the contrary in the interest of efficiency in the emergency expansion of production which is now necessary, as well of as

the future welfare of the nation, it is necessary to maintain child-labor laws and prevent the employment of women for an excessive number of hours.

In both England and France during the first demoralized and terrible year of the war enormous expansion of certain lines of production followed the very serious unemployment which came with the beginning of the war. Administrative officers who were charged with the power to grant exemptions under the factory acts of those countries granted certain exemptions in the belief that they were aiding production. This was largely because in both of these countries the careful, scientific study of the organization of the labor element in production which the situation demanded was not made at the outset, and in consequence these countries drifted into excessive and unprofitable overtime work and increast employment of young children and of the mothers of young children. Official reports now testify to the error of this policy. The Minister of Labor of France in the *Bulletin* for July and August, 1916, quotes from an address of the Undersecretary of State the statement: "The experience of war time has only demonstrated the necessity—technical, economic, and even physiological—of the labor laws enacted before the war. It is in our legislation in the time of peace that we shall find the conditions for a better and more intense production during the war."[1]

The report of the British Health of the Munitions Workers Committee, an investigating committee appointed by the British Ministry of Munitions, shows that, considered from the standpoint of efficiency in production, the breakdown of labor standards has been a great mistake. In this connection it should be remembered that prior to 1914, American standards of compulsory education and child protection were in general higher than English and French standards. The United States, like Canada and New Zealand, can report some slight raising of standards since our entry into the war. States as widely separated as Arkansas, Kansas, Illinois, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Vermont, and Wisconsin strengthened their compulsory-education or child-labor laws during the legislative session of 1917.

But the advances which have been made in recent years are going to be found altogether inadequate in the future. It is expected that in every European country, and in the United States as well, great social and industrial changes are sure to follow the war. Programs which European educators offered before the war are now found to be timid and lacking in vision. Plans are being projected in both England and France for an extension of the compulsory school-attendance laws and the expenditure of greatly increast amounts on elementary education.

Mr. Fisher's Education bill for England raises the leaving age to fourteen and provides for compulsory continuation-school attendance up to eighteen years. It is receiving wide support in England from conservative

[1] Page 123. Quoted in *Children in Warring Countries*, Children's Bureau Publication No. 27, p. 34.

sections and is being criticized as not asking enough by the labor groups. Commenting on the bill the *London Times* says: "If educational reform was clearly a necessity in 1914, the necessity will come to our very doors when demobilization takes place on a great scale. . . . . The inexorable pressure of economic forces have come to the aid of those who demanded the bill as the Children's Charter."

Proposals similar to those made by Mr. Fisher have been discust in the French Chamber of Deputies, where M. Viviani has sponsored the most important measure. The Minister of Public Instruction in France has said that "as compulsory primary instruction was born of the war of 1870, there must come from the present conflict obligatory continuation-school instruction."[1]

The United States has the same kind of economic problems to face in the demobilization of its army as that which England and France are now planning to meet. We too have overwhelming evidence that our past and present educational and school-attendance provisions have been sending to the "economic scrap heap of unskilled labor" hundreds of thousands of children each year. We have known for years that much more far-reaching reforms were needed than those we have formulated in legislative programs. Now, when we can see that the withdrawal of children from industry will become an important factor in stabilizing economic conditions when the demobilization of the army takes place, is the time to secure the enactment of an after-the-war program. Whatever the program is to be, the new national consciousness which has come with war will demand the establishment of a national minimum below which we shall not allow the provision for education and child welfare in general to sink in any state. The United States Child Labor law constitutes a precedent which should not be neglected.

This is no time for modest or timid demands. There never was a time in the history of the world when the training and protection of children was as important as it is today. We are leaving them to bear a burden of national indebtedness of an amount which we have not yet dared even to estimate; we are leaving them to solve those social and economic problems whose solutions we have postponed with increasing difficulty each year; we are expecting them to live down a new set of national hatreds and reorganize our international relationships on the basis of our common interests. Whether or not the children of the world are prepared for this task depends on whether the leaders in education are going to be able to put forward and secure public support for the educational program which the times demand.

[1] *Revue philanthropique* (June, 1916), p. 320. Quoted in *Child Labor in Warring Countries*, Children's Bureau Publication No. 27.

CHILD WELFARE LAWS OF MINNESOTA

S. A. CHALLMAN, STATE INSPECTOR OF SPECIAL CLASSES IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS, ST. PAUL, MINN.

Prior to 1917 Minnesota had a loose, disjointed, incoordinate medley of laws relating to children. These had been past at various sessions of the legislature without any serious bearing upon the whole problem of child welfare, and were largely the result of efforts to overcome some particular evils which happened to be strikingly apparent at the time the laws were past. In this respect, however, they were not much unlike the laws of most of the other states of the Union, and, in reality, prior to the time when the Minnesota laws were revised and systematized Massachusetts and Ohio were the only states that had succeeded in securing a body of laws which were at all comprehensive in scope and uniform in purpose.

In 1916 the governor appointed a commission of sixteen members to consider the whole question of adequate legislation bearing upon this subject. The commission, under the able leadership of Judge Edward F. Waite, of the juvenile court of Minneapolis, made an exhaustive study of the laws upon the statute books. Before revising any part of the law or drafting new laws Judge Waite outlined carefully the objects to be met by any further legislation upon this subject. He laid down as fundamental propositions upon which adequate legislation must be based these four requirements:

1. Every child should have a fair chance to be born sound in brain and body.

2. Every child should have a fair chance for normal development in body, mind, and morals.

3. Every child should be given the greatest practical relief from permanent consequences of his own inexperience and wrongdoing, and reformative restraint from antisocial conduct.

4. Every child should be accorded adequate protection against the wrongdoing of others.

With this program before them the commission set about its task of eliminating unessential and incongruous provisions, reorganizing essential parts of existing laws, and framing new measures by means of which this body of laws might become harmonious and effective. The result of the work was forty-one bills which were presented to the legislature of 1917, out of which number thirty-five were enacted into laws. The far-reaching effect of these laws can to some extent be measured by the fact that one hundred and fourteen sections of the old statutes were repealed, sixty sections were amended, and a well-defined and superior administrative method of procedure was secured.

Under the provisions of these laws the state board of control is given legal guardianship over all children committed to it by courts of competent

jurisdiction. It is also made the duty of this board to promote the enforcement of all laws for the protection of defective, illegitimate, dependent, neglected, and delinquent children, and to take the initiative in all matters involving the interests of such children when adequate provision therefor has not already been made. The means for carrying out these powers and duties are also provided by granting the board the right to appoint and fix salaries of such agents as it deems necessary to employ. Maternity hospitals and infants' homes are placed under supervision, and licenses for their operation must now be secured from the state board of control. Careful records must be kept, but these are open to inspection only by authorized persons or by proper legal tribunals. The placing of children in homes and private institutions is safe-guarded, and such homes and institutions are subject to inspection at any time by the board of control or its authorized agents. The right to determine the character of the home is vested in the board, and whenever it is satisfied that a child has been placed in an unsuitable home it may order its transfer and compel obedience to such order.

By virtue of these laws the state school for the deaf, the state school for the blind, the state public school for dependent children, the state hospital for indigent, crippled, and deformed children, and the home school for girls are placed under the exclusive control of the board. The state training school for boys and other correctional and charitable institutions had previously been placed under the management of this board. Complete control of the various institutions affecting the welfare of children has consequently been placed in one board, which is certainly an achievement of no small moment.

The safeguarding of health is naturally placed in the hands of the state board of health, and the revision of the laws extends the powers of this board to control by appropriate means the treatment of all manner of venereal diseases and infection, the prevention of infant blindness and infection of the eyes of the newly born, by the designation of a prophylactic to be used in such cases and in such manner as the board may direct, unless specifically objected to by the parents or a parent of such infant.

The chapter of the old laws relating to illegitimate children has been entirely rewritten. This chapter in the Minnesota laws was devoid of any sympathy or pity for the unwelcome little babe who was designated in the statutes by the cruel name of "bastard." Judge Waite aptly characterized this chapter as "a disgrace to an enlightened and Christian state." It may happen that this same chapter may still be on the statutes of more than one state in the Union. As for Minnesota, the curse upon the unoffending little life brought into being is removed, and the facts with regard to its birth, while made a matter of record, may not be disclosed except upon an order by a court of competent jurisdiction.

Another chapter safeguards in a comprehensive manner the adoption of a child into a home, simplifies the methods of procedure for securing such

adoption, and provides as well a means of annulment of such adoption for just cause.

The most important part of this work of revision and constructive legislation is without doubt the compact and carefully organized code for the juvenile court in every county of the state without necessarily increasing the number of judges or court officers. For Minnesota it has seemed best to divide certain powers so that in counties of less than 33,000 population the probate court is given partial jurisdiction and in counties of more than 33,000 inhabitants the district court is vested with original and exclusive jurisdiction. The law applies only to children under the age of eighteen years, and carefully defines the meaning of the words "dependent," "neglected," and "delinquent," as relating to children who come under the provisions of the code. It outlines definitely the duties of the officers of the court and the means for carrying out the directions of the court. Its final provision is one especially to be commended, as it embodies the principles which evidently actuated the commission during most of its deliberations and must have imprest with its sincerity of purpose those to whom it was presented. It reads as follows:

> This act shall be liberally construed to the end that its purposes may be carried out, to wit: That in all proceedings arising under its provisions the court shall act upon the principle that to the child concerned there is due from the state the protection and correction which he needs under the circumstances disclosed in the case; and that whenever it is necessary to provide for elsewhere than with his parents, his care, custody, and discipline shall approximate as nearly as may be that which ought to be given by his parents; and that in all cases where it can properly be done he shall be placed in an approved family home and become a member of the family by legal adoption or otherwise.

The chapter providing for county aid to responsible mothers of dependent children has also been rewritten so as to facilitate its application to worthy homes where it was evident to the court that the interests of the state and the children could best be served by keeping the home intact during the tender years of childhood. At the same time abuses of allowance made have been guarded against by making it the duty of the state board of control to supervise and inspect homes to which such allowances have been made.

Until the revised laws were past Minnesota was one of the states which lackt a commitment act that would make it possible to send a feeble-minded person to the state school without his own or his parents' consent, unless he had been guilty of some delinquency. The revised code very properly makes provision for such commitment upon the petition of any relative, guardian, or representative citizen of the country.

With this brief résumé of the laws of our state I have endeavored to place before you some of the more notable provisions. To those of you who may be interested in the laws for any particular purpose I would suggest that you secure from the Children's Bureau of the State Board of Control a compilation of the laws recently made by the director of this Bureau.

THE NEED OF A CONTINUING CENSUS OF CHILDREN OF SCHOOL AGE

JOHN W. DAVIS, DIRECTOR, BUREAU OF ATTENDANCE, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, NEW YORK, N.Y.

If what we read of the application of business methods to the winning of the war may be even measurably accepted as true, we have an example on the largest scale known to history of the systematic use of cumulative records of individual human beings as an indispensable means of complete adaptation of means to ends. No effort is spared to eliminate waste, to utilize to the last degree, not only all material things, but the energy of every human unit, and so far as the precautions devised by men can be made effective no man or woman available for the purpose of the war remains unknown or unused. In the later movements of industry, especially since the shortage of labor began to be apparent—that is, since the cessation of immigration cut us off from the old sources of supply—there has been a reiterated recognition of the importance of industry, not of having access to new sources of labor, but of not losing sight of the labor already at hand. Every member of the working force is henceforth to be regarded as the most valuable of its potential assets, that cannot be lost and replaced except to the detriment of the man and the plant.

It has been said that the school man always advances with halting foot because he never actually faces the consequences of his mistakes as does the business man. And can it be said that the schools have ever accepted the principle of accountability for results in the sense in which the man in the street is constantly forst to do? Where is the plan to be found in operation which seeks systematically to determine how the product of the schools meets the tests of use, and to fix responsibility for removable defects? Who has announst his adherence to the doctrine that the machinery of registration should be so perfected that no child in the community can escape the processes of education? The manufacturer may be pardoned if he has just begun to realize that his most valuable asset is the potentialities of the men who do his work, and that in losing the services of a seasoned workman he is throwing away money, for he, professedly, is concerned only with material results and adjudged competent only so long as he remains successful. But the school man has proclaimed in unmistakable terms his duty to develop the mental, spiritual, and physical man; can it be said that he has definitely tried to assure himself of the result or to ascertain whether all the children of the community have received the benefit of his endeavors? The spur of industry brings about the introduction of labor-saving machinery, the installation of detailed record keeping, the follow-up of the value of the human element. The absence of an equally compelling pace has enabled the schools to ignore the most obvious duty of checking up results, to disregard the wastes to the community of the children who have been overlookt.

What the conception of the school man of the part he is to play in the upbuilding of the community should be has been obvious enough in these years of war—nothing less than the development of every future citizen, not some of them, nor most of them, but all of them—a register of the raw material, a testing of the product to determine whether the results have been achieved. And not because of the community alone, but because democracy means, if it means anything, that until the individual has reacht the stature of manhood and can be charged with full responsibility for his actions he may not be permitted either to waste or to lose his own opportunities.

The school man of today in every phase of administration and pedagogy is confronted, not with the relatively simple life that characterized the rural and even urban communities of a half-century ago, but with the complex demands and connections of the varied and rapidly changing existence which affects, not only the great aggregate of population gathered together in our cities, but the remotest hamlets as well. Never were the home ties more easily loosened, and almost alone among the great nations of the earth have we failed to provide a means of preserving the identity of the individual carried on by the stream of movement. At no time has it been so easily possible for the individual man or child to become so wholly lost to view as now, whether thru accident or one's own will, and never was the search less likely to be successful.

The necessity for a permanent school census as the only adequate means by which the identity of each future member of the community can be establisht and maintained is slowly coming to be recognized. New York state has been the pioneer in this line, and in every city of the state a permanent school census has been installed. Over two years ago Massachusetts also adopted a system of registration for minors, setting an example for the other commonwealths to follow, and I urge upon you the need of exercising your influence to secure the adoption of an adequate measure for the registration of minors in your own state. There is, however, a most important phase of this follow-up work of continuing identification of the individual which cannot be accomplisht by legislation alone, namely, the notification of the removal of children from one state to another, and from one community of a state to another community within the same state. In our present circumstances there is a transfer of population going on, without precedent in amount, the circumstances of which are peculiarly favorable to the loss of children in great numbers from the processes of education. I advocate the adoption of a universal system of transfer between the different states of the Union, and the different communities of the individual states, without delay, and the indorsement of this proposal by this Department of Superintendence now in convention assembled.

I also urge upon your attention the importance of continuous follow-up records of the employments and occupations of children thru minority as the

fundamental basis for testing the results of instruction with the character and amount of instruction given the same child while at school. We meet from the business man the charge that the children of our schools are inefficient and unable to meet even the modest requirements of those who first employ them. We have no answer ready except the assertion of contrary opinion. When such complaints are made, and they will be made again, we should know from whom they come and how representative they are of employers as a whole; whether there are certain groups, unrepresented, who demand other traits, obtain them and consequently have naught to say, since they are satisfied. We should know whether the labor opportunities exist in sufficient numbers to justify training, or whether disappointment is bound to overtake any significant proportion of our children in spite of preparation. The study of the specific defects of particular courses and particular methods might very properly start from the data derived thru the automatic follow-up of all the children in the community during minority. These and many other collateral advantages will readily suggest themselves and furnish abundant and convincing argument to all those candid minds who rejoice in the opportunity to test new achievements against the requirements of reality.

There are many other direct applications of the permanent school census or permanent registration of minors to the general purposes of public education. They have been pointed out many times and will require repeated restatement until they become part of the regularly accepted principles of competent school administration. The most important are as follows:

1. A permanent school census is the only adequate basis for the enforcement of the compulsory-education law. It identifies each child, keeps track of him, and locates him at all times.

2. It provides an accurate forecast of the number of children for whom instruction must be furnisht each year and each term.

3. It minimizes late entrance to school and consequent retardation.

4. It takes note of the shifting of population as well as of its increase, and this indicates in advance the need for new school accommodations.

5. If any given area is affected by immigration, increase or decrease, it registers the fact and the amount.

6. It provides a follow-up of employed children, and thus enables school authorities to list and compare the occupations of pupils with the character of instruction given them.

7. By the organization of its information concerning occupations and employments it provides the facts necessary to the development of industrial and vocational courses.

8. Enforcement of compulsory attendance at continuation schools and evening schools is peculiarly dependent upon the permanent census.

9. Its child-population statistics are necessary for the development of recreational facilities.

10. It affords a true and accurate basis for conscription of minors and registration of new voters.

The corollary: Intercity and interstate transfer system.

CAUSES OF ABSENCE FROM RURAL SCHOOLS

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Child labor in agriculture has hitherto not received public attention because it has been generally assumed that the child on the farm is in every way more fortunate than the child employed in manufacturing, mining, and trade and consequently has relatively little or no need of protection other than that afforded by his parents. Indeed, in states whose child-labor laws have a blanket provision forbidding the employment of children under a certain age in all gainful occupations, agricultural work is specifically exempted. As such exemptions are based merely upon this general assumption it is opportune to inquire whether this kind of labor is altogether advantageous to the child, or whether there are conditions connected with it which endanger his welfare and interfere with his proper development.

Every decade the report of the United States Census on occupations shows that nearly three-fourths of our child laborers are employed in agricultural pursuits, yet the widespread and determined movement for child-labor reform has not even toucht this greatest field of all. It has resulted in protective legislation concerning employment in mines, factories, mills, and mercantile establishments, but the only legislation which in any way protects children from premature or excessive work on farms is the compulsory-education law, and this is effective only during certain hours of certain days for the school term from five to nine months of the year. Moreover, the greatest agricultural activity comes usually in the school vacation period when there are no restrictions whatever upon the labor of children on farms.

Of the total number of children from ten to fifteen years of age reported in 1910 as engaged in agricultural work, 1,157,464, or 80.8 per cent, were farm laborers on the home farm, and 260, 195, or 18.1 per cent, were "farm laborers working out." That many of the laborers on the home farm also are daily required to do fatiguing work thru long periods of seasonal activity and are at the same time deprived of schooling is beyond question. Of the total number of farm laborers from ten to fifteen years of age, on the home farm and working out, 81.8 per cent were found in thirteen southern states.

For the purpose of making a study of this subject in Colorado, thirty-three typical school districts in representative counties were selected in the

South Platte River and Arkansas River valleys with a view to showing conditions as they exist thruout the sugar-beet sections. The records showed that the beet workers mist more than three and one-half times as many days as the other children. In addition to the preponderance of absence, excessive retardation on the part of the beet workers was also found; this was in all probability due entirely to their prolonged absence, for teachers declare that the beet workers would do fully as well in school as the others if they attended as regularly.

A second study was conducted in Kentucky in order to determine approximately to what extent farm work in that state interferes with the attendance of children at the rural schools. The records show that the greatest number of absences of both white and negro children in the first few months of the school term are due to farm work. It is also interesting to note that housework ranks third in responsibility for failure to attend regularly. In the case of the white children farm work and housework occasioned almost as many days of absence as all the other causes combined; in the case of the negro children they caused more.

It is striking that the farm-work absentees are more retarded, both in actual numbers and in proportion, than the other absentees. This is the logical result of the fact that farm work is responsible for more days of absence than any other cause. One might at first be inclined to think that illness as a cause of absence would be just as great a menace to the standing of the child in school as farm work, but this is not the case. Farm workers are more retarded than children who are absent on account of illness, because farm work is steady, while illness is occasional; moreover, farm work occurs year after year, while illness may occur only once. The outstanding fact in all these figures is that farm work interferes with the education of rural children more than any other factor. The compulsory-attendance law is commonly ignored. The consequences in retardation are disastrous alike to the child, to the school, and to the community.

Oklahoma, still predominately a rural state, also presents conditions of interest. From the viewpoint of numbers at least, the rural school is the most important element of the state's educational system, and yet it makes the worst showing. In order to study this question the records of 6389 children were obtained for the past school year; these were about equally divided between the two sexes, 3255 being boys and 3134 girls. These were all white, but include a few Indians, as children of this race attend the white schools and negroes are segregated in others. So far as possible information was gathered concerning land tenure, and the children were divided into groups according to whether their parents owned or rented their places of residence. It was found that of the total number, 3488 were the children of tenants (1812 boys and 1676 girls) and 2499 of home owners (1232 boys and 1217 girls). It is significant that in nearly every county studied

tenants' children outnumber owners' children, while for all the counties the ratio is nearly 3 to 2.

Many of the children who mist school on account of farm work or housework were, of course, absent for other reasons also, such as illness, bad weather, etc., but as 73 per cent of the absences of the "farm workers" was due to farm work only, and 62 per cent of those of the "house workers" to housework only, these causes predominate sufficiently in each case to justify the application of these terms. In the totals for all the counties the farm workers and house workers together exceed the figures for all the other groups of children combined, and here one begins to appreciate the extent to which labor interferes with the educational opportunities in rural districts. Of the 1152 boys and girls of migrants, 859 were the children of tenants and only 195 of owners, the land tenure of 81 being unknown. This reveals the comparative extent of moving about among tenants and the consequent interference with education.

Of all the children the farm workers are most retarded, 51.1 per cent of their number being below normal grade on the three-year basis. They are followed by the migrants with 41.1 per cent, and then by the house workers with 36.7 per cent. Fewer than a quarter of the other absentees are retarded, while for the daily attendants the percentage is only 12.6. The daily attendants and the "other absentees" also make the best showing with regard to the numbers ahead and in normal grades, while the farm workers and the migrants are again at the bottom of the list; 95.5 per cent of the daily attendants pass to the higher grades, the other absentees, house workers, farm workers, and migrants, following in the order named.

In comparing the percentages for the tenants' children with those for the owners' children we find that in every group the latter excel the former in progress thru the grades. They have higher percentages ahead, and normal and lower percentages retarded, in all the groups of workers, other absentees, migrants, and daily attendants. Here the advantage of the owner's child over the tenant's child in the struggle to secure an elementary education stands sharply revealed. The workers and migrants are shown to be the chief sufferers and, assuming that they are approximately as well endowed mentally as the other absentees and the daily attendants, we observe the disastrous results of tolerating carelessness and indifference and permitting parents to sacrifice the educational interests of their children to immediate gain.

The simple fact brought out by the study in Oklahoma and other states is that in rural districts the compulsory school-attendance law is commonly ignored. The people acquire land, build and equip schoolhouses, and pay teachers' salaries so that their children may get an elementary education, but this worthy object is largely defeated when the children go to school but little more than half of the brief period during which they are in session. If the people could be made to understand that they are suffering great

financial loss thru this carelessness, to say nothing of the moral and educational loss their children sustain, they would doubtless remedy the situation at once. And the first necessary step is to make the compulsory-attendance law apply thruout the school term. The second necessary step, the enforcing of the law, is not less important, but cannot be properly taken until the basis for the organization of rural schools is changed from the district to the county. The members of district school boards are closely acquainted with the few families living within their jusridiction and will not prosecute their friends and neighbors who do not send their children to school regularly. There should be a county board employing a county truancy officer who would not be embarrast in the performance of his duty by personal relations with negligent parents. The state should then require each county to enforce the law, and in the event of any county's failure to do so it should be deprived of all state funds for school purposes.

PART-TIME V. THE SPECIAL TEACHER AS THE ECONOMIC SOLUTION OF THE SPEECH-DISORDER PROBLEM IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

WALTER B. SWIFT, MEDICAL SUPERVISOR OF SPEECH CLASSES, FALL RIVER, MASS.

We are everywhere met, in the effort to introduce speech correction in public schools, with the idea that only special teachers can do the work. It is easy to see how school boards come by this mistaken idea. Some five or ten years ago a craze for special teachers swept thru the schools of the entire country. These teachers were given the sort of work which could not be accomplisht by the ordinary grade teacher unless she was taken from her grade work and given long training in a definite and prescribed subject. When the problem of speech correction came before the school board, therefore, the most natural thing for it to do was to turn to the special teacher. We in Boston do not approve of this, and the reasons for our disapproval will be stated in this paper.

By the phrase "special teacher" is meant one who gives all her time to a single restricted phase of school work. As a specialist she is of course more expert than the part-time teacher is expected to be. She is entirely removed from grade work, as are also, for the time being, the children who come to her. Because of her specialized training and ability she commands a higher salary than the ordinary grade teacher. The "part-time teacher," on the other hand, is one who, while continuing with her grade teaching, does other work of a specialized nature in addition. She remains a member of the regular teaching staff of the grades. Her remuneration for her special work is less than that which must be paid to the full-time specialist, but yet she is not underpaid, since she draws the ordinary salary of a grade

teacher in addition. More important than this, the children whom she teaches in her special classes are not removed from the grades.

It seems to me that these advantages, even if they were all, are sufficient to attract the attention of public-school officials. But this is by no means all that can be said in favor of the part-time teacher. Besides eliminating or alleviating speech disorders, the work in vocal and oral drill has a most salutary effect upon the whole range of school work, especially in those cases in which such drill is given by the grade teacher herself to pupils engaged at the same time in grade work. On the other hand, where the children are taken from the grades during the period of their speech training this general improvement is not found. Indeed their grade work is likely to suffer from the interruption and from the distraction of energy and attention.

In addition it should be kept in mind that the special teacher who spends five hours a day on speech correction alone is doing very hard and monotonous work. It is hard *because* it is monotonous. Wherever I meet these special teachers I find them complaining that they are overburdened with work. Variety of effort has obvious advantages for teacher and pupils alike. They do all their work far better because of the change introduced by two or three hours a day of vocal drill. Shifting from one brain area to another keeps them alert, prevents fatigue.

The mere fact that she remains in grade work keeps a teacher's standard of mental reaction at a pitch that is of great value to her speech class. The special teacher, in giving up her grade work, loses contact with the normal mentalities of the grades. Instinctive knowledge of the grade standard, a very important and necessary thing in all teaching, she either has not acquired or does not retain.

There is another consideration in favor of the part-time teacher. We shall not always have such a large number of speech-defect cases in the grades. In a few years our methods will have weeded them out to such an extent that there will be none left by the time pupils reach the eighth grade. Then we shall go to work on purely preventive methods. Therefore our field is a gradually diminishing one. We shall not always need the large number of speech teachers required now. The question will then arise, What shall be done with those left over? The special teacher cannot readily be put back into the grades. A part-time teacher, however, can be easily withdrawn at any time, or she can broaden out into other fields if the situation demands.

The special teacher's work is done exclusively with those sent to her for a definite and specific purpose. Naturally these are the "lame ducks," children whose speech is intolerably bad. She gets only the extreme, the desperate, cases. But nearly all children in the lower grades are susceptible of improvement in speech. Shall we do nothing for these? Who is to train those whose speech is moderately good, but not good enough, not

excellent? The special teacher never sees these cases, has no time for them. Anyone can see the immense advantage there is in having at least one teacher in every school building who has been sensitized by training to the excellencies and defects of speech—one trained to detect minor faults and to eradicate them. The part-time speech teacher exerts in her own schoolroom an influence for speech improvement which, as her classes come and go year after year, puts its mark upon the speech standards, and therefore on the intellectual standards, of the entire school.

In discussing the pros and cons of this question we must keep in mind the status of speech correction in the years to come. It is growing so important that before long this sort of work will be considered part of every public-school teacher's normal function. The question arises then, Does the special teacher or the part-time teacher play better into the conditions which we may foresee in the future? Clearly the scale tips in favor of the latter. The special teacher can remain only in her separate capacity. Her functions cannot be readily absorbed or transformed when no longer necessary. The part-time teacher, on the contrary, has her grade work as her mainstay. The speech-correction work which she does on the outside is done merely in response to a great but temporary demand. When this abnormal demand ceases she will return to her grade work again and there maintain her high speech standards. She is therefore the natural link in the evolution of events leading to the time when all teachers will be more or less engaged in speech correction.

There are many superintendents who hesitate to instal departments of speech correction merely on account of the expense. A few figures will suggest an easy solution. Two years ago in the city of Lynn two part-time speech teachers were set to work, with a total increase in salary of about $500. If a special teacher had been engaged, her salary would have been about $1200 a year. Last year in Fall River three teachers were set to work on speech-defect cases with an increase of $100 each in salary. This meant a saving, as compared with the cost to the city of a single special teacher, of about $900. I consider that no group of schools is too poor to instal speech correction where it is needed, provided the problem is approacht in the proper manner.

There is real need, of course, for special teachers in fields more isolated from ordinary school work than this of speech correction, such as the work with the feeble-minded and that in physical culture, neither of which can ever be taken into the regular grade work and maintained there as the higher ideals of grade work demand. The case with speech correction is quite different. The training is different, the application of it is different, and these differences require a different approach.

In summary I may say then that the nature of this work itself, the tendency of speech-defect cases to diminish in number under treatment as the years go by, the self-evident fact that this work should percolate thru all

the grades—all these considerations lead to the conclusion that speech correction is not the special teacher's function. The advantages of the part-time teacher solution are that the pupils are retained in their regular grade work, the teacher and her pupils have the great advantage of variety in their work, and the speech standards of entire schools are slowly but certainly raised. Finally the part-time teacher is immensely more economical even in terms of dollars and cents.

DISCUSSION

Hector L. Belisle, superintendent of schools, Fall River, Mass.—Assuming that the correction of speech defects is a work which should be undertaken in the public schools the superintendent has to bear in mind two things: the best way in which to secure results and the lowest cost for results that are adequate. If a community offers so little work in this line that one teacher cannot be kept busy all the time, logically the part-time teacher becomes inevitable. On the other hand, if there is work enough for a regular teacher the case must be considered further before deciding whether to employ one teacher on full time or a number of teachers on part time. The choice between the two should be considered in its relation to the teacher and to the pupil.

Many types of special pupils are naturally segregated, as mental defectives, non-English-speaking immigrants, and pupils much over-age, these being kept in separate groups because their whole schooling must be of a character distinct from that of the regular graded children of their own ages. Their educational shortcomings are fundamental and cannot be overcome by any treatment short of full-time special instruction. The pupil suffering from speech defects, however, in a large proportion of cases does reasonably good or even excellent school work. Tho in many cases it does hinder progress, speech defect is usually an accidental hindrance to a pupil which does not necessarily interfere with his advancement in school. As a general problem, however, the correction of speech defect is a side issue in the education of the pupil and should be carried on incidentally as a piece of work parallel to his regular schooling. A limited amount of instruction in school with considerable drill and practice at home will secure the results aimed at without interfering with his instruction in the grades. It seems clear, therefore, that the pupil should be expected to work under a special teacher for a very brief period during the week, one hour or two at the most.

As between the full-time and the part-time teacher the argument seems to be strongly in favor of the latter. The strongest argument in favor of the full-time teacher is that, being a specialist, she is a better master of her subject. In this field, however, which has been so little developt the accumulated knowledge and experience does not require years of study; what is definitely known and the theories which underlie instruction in this subject constitute a limited body of knowledge which can be acquired within a reasonable time by such a grade teacher as a superintendent would be likely to select to undertake the work. The teacher who is only a speech-defect specialist might, therefore, have very little advantage over one who takes up the work on the part-time basis.

On the other hand, a teacher regularly engaged in grade work who devotes a limited number of hours a week to correcting the speech defects of pupils in her own and neighboring schools has several advantages over the full-time specialist in that subject. She is likely to bring to this work an energy and a zest which spring from the natural interest one takes in a new piece of work; the variety in her work will add to its excellence on both sides. As a grade teacher she has a broad interest in school work generally. She watches children from all points of view and necessarily has a broader sympathy because she looks at them from more than one side. The specialist may in the course of time come to have chiefly a professional interest in the pupils, having a tendency to consider them merely as cases. The grade teacher, on the other hand, giving part-time instruction in speech defects is more likely to have a personal relation to the pupil. From her association with children in the school and the neighborhood and the pupils' acquaintance with her as a teacher in the district the mutual interest will be greater and the reaction on the pupils more beneficial.

In a word, the problem may be said to resolve itself into one of teaching as against doctoring; the part-time teacher never losing her stand as a teacher or being lookt on by her pupils as anything but as a teacher, with all the advantages that that relation implies, as against the full-time specialist coming periodically on what may be likened to a doctor's mission, valuable of course, but different from the teacher's in its influence on the pupil.

WILMER KINNAN, assistant superintendent of schools, Lynn, Mass.—The speakers preceding on the program of this section have stated with admirable clearness and conciseness the various points in favor of the part-time speech teacher, basing their arguments upon economic, administrative, and educational grounds. In Lynn, not having had experience with the special teacher, we are not in position to compare or to contrast the results obtained in the case of the part-time teacher with those obtained in the case of the special teacher. The results obtained, however, are the test of any theory. We can say with confidence that such good results may be obtained with the part-time teacher that it is doubtful if a special teacher could do much better.

The time is surely and swiftly coming when corrective speech work will be taken up and done systematically in all of our best school systems. School boards, teachers, and the public, if possible, should be brought to realize that it is *economic* at any cost to take care of the large group of pupils having speech defect. It is both the moral duty and the legitimate function of the schools to do so. The presence of speech defect is a markt cause of retardation and elimination. Its cure or improvement involves mental training. It is both pedagogical and psychological and therefore an educational problem.

From 2 per cent to 2½ per cent of the pupils in the elementary schools are seriously handicapt by speech defect. In Lynn, out of an elementary-school population of approximately fourteen thousand, 359 children had some markt form of speech defect. Of these, 58 were mentally deficient. Only 45 were improving slowly *without* instruction. We had 265 pupils, perfectly normal mentally, who were seriously handicapt by defective speech. Of the foregoing, 21 were six years of age or under and not as yet to be classified as retardates. Of the remainder all but 50 were retarded one or more years in school work. Only three had reacht the eighth grade.

We need to emphasize the following points: first, the children having speech defect constitute a large group when taken together; secondly, they are largely normal children; thirdly, they are greatly retarded as a result of this defect; fourthly, from 70 to 80 per cent can be cured or so improved as to have the defect cease to act as a direct handicap. It will then be found that no community will feel too poor to secure a teacher for them. In Lynn we secured two who volunteered to train for the work. These teachers were handling one-session classes of retardates which closed at 1:30 p.m. On four afternoons a week each teacher gave an hour and a half to corrective speech work. Of the pupils having the most markt defects, 275 were examined and 103 were selected because of grouping well for treatment. The pupils were divided for class instruction into eight groups, allowing about ten pupils to a group. Each group reported at a central building in the district twice a week for a period of forty minutes during school time. The speech teacher workt both individually and collectively with them during this period. No more serious, earnest, energetic, and ambitious groups could be found than these classes. Their greatest needs other than corrective exercises seemed to be inspiration, encouragement, and a restoration of self-reliance. Much, very much, of the success of the work depends upon the *kind* of teacher selected. She must be one of our best as a regular teacher, the kind who constantly looks for and secures definite acquirement. She must be vigorous, sympathetic, patient, and optimistic. These four qualities are essential.

Our results in twenty-eight weeks with two part-time teachers, who gave a total of twelve hours a week to the work, were as follows:

Out of a total of 275 cases examined, 103 which groupt well for treatment were selected. Of the 53 stutterers, 35 have been practically cured, 12 have shown markt improvement, and only have shown little or no improvement. Of the 43 severe cases 6

of lispers and phonetics, 14 have been sufficiently improved to be discharged, 19 show markt improvement, but need additional treatment. All of the lispers and phonetics showed some improvement. Seven cases of other defects were also somewhat improved.

A goodly number of the pupils were reported as advancing more rapidly in school work after receiving treatment. Many letters of appreciation were received from their parents and teachers. Any superintendent who will make a careful investigation of the problem in his schools will be imprest with the need and the advisability of providing instruction for the children having speech defect.

JOHN CHRISTOPHER, district superintendent of schools, Philadelphia, Pa.—In its essentials Dr. Swift's paper is a brief for a special system to be administered along special lines. The matter for discussion, I take it, concerns only the special method of administration as laid down by the speaker. Despite its seeming narrowness the plan proposed is of universal application. It is suitable for any other system for the correction of speech defects. It could be easily adapted to plans radically different from the one that has been organized by Dr. Swift.

Theoretically at least, the speaker, it seems to me, has made his point. So well has he marshaled his facts that we cannot but feel that the balance swings decisively in favor of the part-time teacher plan. As a measure of economy alone, in these war times, it has its justification. Particularly, however, would I stress the advantage that is bound to result both to class and to teacher from the happy union in one person of speech specialist and grade teacher.

A suggestion that should be considered with regard to the administration of the proposed plan concerns the hour of the special lesson. As indicated by the speaker, this would fall at the close of the afternoon session, not thru choice, however, but as a consequence of the inflexible nature of the ordinary school program. This is the time when the fatigue curve is highest for both pupils and teacher. The way out of this difficulty seems comparatively easy. Without attempting to open a discussion as to the merits of the Gary system, it would seem obvious that under a duplicate-school plan modified to suit local conditions, or under a departmental schedule, or under any scheme that carries with it the possibility of individual rosters, both pupils and teacher could be releast for this work at more fortuitous periods of the day.

These are particular details and probably will be easy of adjustment. A real difficulty lies, however, in the method of introduction of the special system. Under Dr. Swift's plan there is to be a medical director, a supervisor of speech-defect classes, and specially trained teachers. The last named will be selected from the local corps, as will possibly the supervisor, but for the present the medical director must come from outside the local system. As we all know, these systems in some instances may be ingrown with local prejudices. and the stranger, be he sage or prophet, not to say physician, may not be welcome within the city gates. Where such is the case, perhaps the answer may be found in the fable of Mohammed and the mountain.

Be the pitfalls what they may, we must all agree that some relief should be afforded this unfortunate class of pupils. If you have not surveyed your schools in this matter, or delved into the statistics on the subject, you will probably be surprised at the percentage of speech delinquents in a given school population. A crude and extremely limited investigation in Philadelphia places our number approximately at 2000, or 1 per cent of our total enrolment. Boston in 1900 discovered 0.77 per cent; Chicago in 1910, 1300 cases. Dr. G. Stanley Hall cites German investigations showing 1.12 per cent and Russian 1.57 per cent. That we are facing a live question is shown by the fact that at least fifteen of our American cities have special classes for this type of child.

Where there are no special classes the treatment of pupils so handicapt is, to say the least, a matter of haphazardness. A sympathetic teacher takes them under her wing and for the time makes them feel that they are not total life-failures. The school physician,

or the nurse, or the principal, or the teacher may recommend extra-mural treatment. This will probably mean intermittent visits for the pupil at some special hospital or psychological clinic, with the possible stigma of charity, and, because the attendance is voluntary, with uncertainty of persistent effort and permanent result; or it may mean the attendance at some private institution, not under public supervision; or treatment by some physician specialist very often at too great a cost for the family to afford.

Of course these things should not be. Outside of our moral obligation, the compulsory-attendance laws demand the attendance of all children all the time. While we cannot re-create all children to be equal, we can and should give equal opportunities to all our pupils. In these days of special classes for the aenemic, for the tubercular, for the backward, for the lame and the halt, for the "longs and the shorts," that our progressive cities have provided, it seems passing strange indeed that the movement for the adequate care of the speech defective is not more widely spread. Let us sense our duty in this matter, and in this sensing let us, if possible, get some measure of Dr. Swift's missionary spirit.

Here is one class of atypicals that can be made to approach normality with but a slight deviation on our part from regular procedure and at a small expenditure. Granted it may be that they do form a relatively small percentage of our total school population, yet such lets and hindrances are they to themselves and of such detrimental influence to their associates that some remedy becomes a pressing necessity. The measures for relief are so near at hand and so comparatively easy of administration that we can hardly offer any excuse for neglecting the problem. And finally, nowhere will a teacher find a greater reward in the consciousness of duty well done than in helping these types of pupils. Their gratitude becomes a cup of joy filled to the brim and overflowing.

G. CONFERENCE ON PHYSICAL TRAINING

TOPIC: PHYSICAL WELFARE WORK WITH SCHOOL CHILDREN IN WAR TIMES

A. THE VITAL NECESSITY OF PHYSICAL TRAINING FOR THE COUNTRY BOY AND GIRL

DUDLEY A. SARGENT, DIRECTOR, HEMENWAY GYMNASIUM, HARVARD UNIVERSITY, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

Anyone who has read Provost Marshal General Crowder's recent report and noted that from 25 to 75 per cent of our young men were exempted from military service on account of physical disability and preventable disease cannot help having some misgivings as to the future of our country. If the object of education is to prepare one for life—and I think I may say in all seriousness for the "battle of life"—what an awful commentary upon our methods of preparation and our habits of working and living is this large percentage of physically incapacitated men! One naturally asks, What are some of the causes of this stupendous waste and wreckage of American manhood?

The limited space that can be allowed will admit of only a brief summary of a few of the causes that have in the writer's opinion told so disastrously upon our national physique. These are:

1. A feeble inheritance on the part of many, and constitutional inability to meet climatic conditions and the changes due to immediate environment.

Scientists have long maintained that no race of human kind has yet obtained a permanent foothold upon this continent, the main reasons being that our climate is so stimulating and exhilarating that most people wear themselves out simply by the speed at which they are driven in their efforts to live.

2. Inability of many to meet the peculiar demands of their chosen occupation with its restrictions as to general activity, bodily posture, bad air, and poor sanitary environment. During the Civil War the fewest exemptions from physical debility and disease occurred among sailors, boatmen, firemen, miners, previous soldiers, and the heavy iron workers. This indicates the direct influence of the use of the large muscles in maintaining health.

3. Contrast with this effect the influence upon the physique of new inventions and the minute division of labor which now prevails. While dividing the field of man's efforts and encouraging specialization have greatly increast the total output of labor and made it possible for the individual to earn a livelihood by the employment of a few muscles and faculties, it has greatly lessened the health-giving value of occupations.

4. Many of the new discoveries and inventions have had an equally deleterious effect upon health. The telegraph, telephone, typewriting, printing, and other machines, with steam, electricity, and inexhaustible motor forces behind them, have greatly quickened the pulses of human life. While they are saving labor in many ways they are narrowing and intensifying human activity to a high degree and are greatly increasing the nervous tension and consequent exhaustion. In many occupations men are now brought into competition, not only with each other, but with tireless machinery that pushes them to the limit. Under such a strain many are breaking down with heart disease, kidney trouble, nervous exhaustion, and other organic disturbances. A man can no longer rely upon his occupation to keep him in health or good physical condition. He now must give what health he has to his occupation and trust to other agencies to keep himself physically fit to meet the strain of labor conditions.

5. All the evils I have enumerated have been greatly intensified during the past fifty years by the increase of city life. At the time of the Revolution only 3 per cent of our population lived in cities of more than eight thousand inhabitants. Now New York City alone has more people than were in the whole country at that time and nearly 50 per cent of the population of the United States are now city dwellers. Altho the best blood of the country is continually flowing into our great cities in the shape of stalwart youth and vigorous maidens, the stress and strain of living and working is so intense and exhausting that few survivors can be found in the third generation.

6. But notwithstanding the intense activity and wear and tear of city life with its crowded streets and working quarters, so much has been done

during the past thirty years to improve the sanitary condition of the city that the amount of sickness and annual death-rate are continually lessening.

It is largely due to the recent improvement in the sanitary arrangements of the city, the hygienic instruction in the schools, and the developmental value of the gymnasium, athletic fields, and recreative centers and playgrounds that the great cities like London, New York, and Chicago have often had a lower death-rate than many of the smaller towns surrounding them. The country towns and villages have not begun to awaken to their possibilities in the prevention of disease, or to their responsibility for the health education and physical development of their children.

7. Hence another cause of the poor physical condition of such a large number of American youths is the wretched health conditions surrounding the home and school life of a large percentage of the children living in the country. Let me quote from the admirable report of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Council of the National Education Association and of the Council on Health and Public Instruction of the American Medical Association prepared by the chairman, Dr. Thomas D. Wood, of Columbia University: "More than half (about 12,000,000 or three-fifths) of the school children in the United States are attending rural schools. Country children attending rural schools are, on the average, less healthy and are handicapt by more physical defects than the children of the cities, including all the children of the slums. And this is true in general of all parts of the United States." This committee further states that "the present deplorable conditions may be attributed to lack of architectural and sanitary ideals and standards in rural regions, false economy of local school boards in failure to vote enough money to build and maintain suitable school buildings, and lack of health supervision or assistance by the state, which is usually necessary to maintain desirable standards of physical and mental efficiency."

Since this report was written the great state of New York has passed the "Welch Bill," which has provided for the city and country schools of the state physical training and health teaching as a part of the regular curriculum. Now just as other states in the Union are looking to New York for light and leading in this important educational movement, and the experiment is yet to be thoroly tried out, another bill is introduced into the Legislature termed the "Lord Bill," the object of which, as I understand it, is to exempt all rural schools from physical training. If in the light of our present-day knowledge of the physical unfitness of a large percentage of our young men, and of the woeful physical defects and imperfections of a large number of our country as well as our city youths, this bill is allowed to pass, it seems to me it will be an awful step backward for the state of New York and thru her a wretched example for the country at large. Some of the wise men of New York state have seen this crying

need of the children of the people and have made efforts to supply it by making physical training an integral part of the regular school program. England and France have come to the same conclusion in their hour of need for men, and the Minister of Education in England now pathetically declares that it shall never again be said that it is not until they are needed for the terrible uses of war that any care is taken of the mass of the youth of the country. Yet this is the condition of the United States today, where, as we have seen, over 50 per cent of our young men have been rejected as unfit for military service, while the country is spending millions upon millions at the training camps in trying to get those who have been accepted in fit condition to perform the duties of a soldier. I have no hesitation in saying that three-fourths of all that is now being done to fit our young men for service at the cantonments could have been done and should have been done at school during the growing and developing period as a matter of daily routine in preparation for life. Aside from the technical requirements of the soldier, which the best military authorities tell us may be attained in from three to six months, all the mental and physical ability a man can carry into the service is that which he has acquired thru inheritance, or from years of schooling and training. To imagine that this ability can be acquired, with all of the courage and fighting spirit that should accompany it, by attending school and reading about what someone else has done, or sitting on a bench and seeing some other fellow run, jump, or play ball, is an awful mistake—a mistake from an educational point of view from which we shall have a rude awakening before the war is over.

Most of us have opened our hearts and our pocketbooks in aid of the many charitable organizations which are now seeking to make life more comfortable and enduring for those who are going over to the other side to meet the hardships of war. While we should all rejoice to be able to make the soldier's life as "safe, soft, and easy" as possible, those of us whose business it has been to prepare men for athletic contests know that the first essentials are vital power, strength, hardihood, and endurance. These are the qualities that are going to enable a man to stand on his feet, bear his burdens, endure discomfiture, and finally "go over the top." Moreover, if a man is stricken with disease or wounded in battle, it is not "cake, candy, or cigarettes," or even skilled medical attendance or tender nursing alone that are going to pull him thru; these luxuries and kindly aids are indeed comforting and greatly assist nature, but the most potent factors that are going to bring back his health and strength and enable him to keep up the fight are the good rich blood in his veins and the vitality of his tissues that have been acquired by correct habits of living and vigorous physical training.

B. PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING MINIMUM ESSENTIALS OF EXERCISES

WILLIAM A. STECHER, DIRECTOR OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

There should be no objection to the statement that education must be a conscious process, an undertaking with a purpose. Since physical education is a part of education it also must have a definite purpose. To teach anything we must therefore know what purpose is to be served by the thing to be taught.

Obviously bodily health is the first essential, the first purpose, in physical education. No one can be completely efficient in any walk of life unless he is in good physical condition. No less important than bodily health is an active mentality and the habit of having due regard for the rights of others. These then we may regard as the aims of physical education.

After the purpose of physical education has been stated it next is necessary to choose from the vast number of possible bodily activities those few that are indispensable to accomplish the purposes indicated. When we have done this we must select from the many ways of doing these things those few methods of doing them that are likely to lead to valuable results in the shortest time. In selecting such activities we must never lose sight of the fact that the various forms of bodily exercise exist for man's sake, not he for them. In deciding upon the value of any specific activity the question always should be, Of what significance is it to man? How can he apply it? What purpose can it serve? An activity should not be its own end. It must help perform some work; it must serve some human purpose.

A further reason for selecting any physical-education activity should be the fact that we cannot get along without it, that it is necessary for life and health. It should be an indispensable and direct aid to us in doing our work. In efficient teaching of any type the time has past when a subject is taught because of its value as general training. In efficient physical education the time also has past for teaching tactics, free exercises, steps, etc., because of their value in adding to one's general efficiency.

Modern psychology has demonstrated that there is no great amount of transfer of any ability or acquired skill from one field of endeavor to an entirely different field. As soon as the conditions differ the ability acquired in one line does not appear to affect the performance in an entirely different line to any appreciable degree. Since we cannot expect a large amount of all-around benefit in the way of general bodily efficiency from many of the gymnastic activities found in most of the older courses in physical training, it is very important, therefore, that we select and emphasize only such activities as have definite utility. A rational course in physical education should build up in the pupil habits that will go on functioning in his later life and ideals which will predispose him to truly useful social behavior.

The habits to be developt by physical education might be groupt under three heads: (1) habits of useful muscular activity, (2) hygienic habits, and

(3) social habits. In developing these habits we must first of all teach the pupil certain vigorous muscular exercises essential for physical development and general health, e.g., running, jumping, climbing, vaulting, skating, swimming, and playing various games.

Secondly, we must develop other habits that are less purely physiological, habits that are more conscious. Among these are the habit of taking frequent exercise out of doors, the habit of doing corrective exercises, the habit of keeping clean (in person and surroundings), the habit of living hygienically. It is in relation to this second set of habits that the truth appears with regard to the lack of transfer of habits from one environment to another. Consider the sanatorium patient who returns to his own house. He very soon falls back into his unhygienic habits unless during his stay at the sanatorium he has formed very strong ideals of right living and has in mind very definite rules for carrying out these ideals. The proper kind of physical education should then contain instruction in such matters as will produce conscious practice of hygienic habits.

Thirdly, we must in physical education take into account the development of what might almost be called moral habits—self-control, orderliness, punctuality, cooperation, fair play. These habits above all depend upon the raising to consciousness of an ideal—a standard of action. Who has not seen a boy who would scorn to cheat at baseball, nevertheless cheat in school? He had the "be square at ball" habit, not the "be square all the time" habit. It is the task of physical education as of all education to teach proper ideals as well as proper habits.

The number of activities indispensable for securing both results—proper ideals and proper habits—is not large. If then the selected activities are taught with due regard to the formation of ideals, physical education will have provided activities and knowledge that will be really useful in the after-school life of the pupil.

For teaching purposes the essential activities might be groupt as follows: Forms of bodily exercise and games leading to:

1. The ability to control one's body on the earth and in the water. This would include exercises like running, jumping, tramping, dancing, swimming.

2. The ability to control one's body in many of the unusual accidental situations that modern life imposes upon us. This would include exercises on apparatus that permits climbing, vaulting, swinging, stemming, hanging, supporting.

3. The ability to move other objects with accuracy and dispatch. This would include exercises like throwing, striking (including boxing), wrestling, rowing.

The minimum essentials here would be a well-prepared teacher, sufficient outdoor space, and sufficient time.

Under hygienic habits we would first of all place cleanliness of person and of clothing, also a disposition to be dissatisfied with unclean surroundings.

There should be instruction in the laws of health. This training to produce hygienic habits might be classed as:

1. Health instruction, health knowledge, leading to correct habits based upon an understanding of what is good or bad for the individual.

2. Corrective exercises based upon individual needs as disclosed by a personal examination, leading to a habit of exercising to attain a well-proportioned body.

3. Cleanliness of person, of gymnasium, of building. Cleanliness should begin with the individual, then take in the gymnasium, locker, and bath-rooms, and eventually embrace the building and its surroundings. It should lead to the habit of civic helpfulness and cooperation in health matters.

If these activities are taught correctly, and if the teacher, especially thru the correct use of team games, incessantly strives to bring into consciousness the ideals of cooperation, of fair play, of helpfulness, of always being square, it is reasonable to expect that many good social habits will be formed. The hygienic habits formed by a desire to live according to the knowledge acquired by the health instruction would be reinforst by good habits of muscular activity. Sane muscular activity and the desire to reach high standards of hygiene would in time be reinforst by useful social habits. And the result of this threefold striving should be a more useful and effective social being.

MINIMUM ESSENTIALS

1. *Teachers.*—The regular classroom teachers should be able to teach the standard physical activities spoken of above. They should have had a training in applied hygiene and in sociology.

2. *Space.*—A playground is better than a gymnasium. If, however, both can be had, they both could be used profitably. The playground should be large enough to accommodate the pupils of a school. For a school having less than 200 children there should be a free, undivided play space of not less than 2000 square feet plus an addition of 20 square feet for each enrolled pupil. For a school having more than 200 children there should be a free undivided play space of not less than 2000 square feet plus an addition of 30 square feet for each enrolled pupil. In addition to the playground, according to the size of the school, there should be one or more playrooms for use during bad weather. These rooms should be not less than 30×75 feet each.

3. *Equipment.*—Balls are the most necessary pieces of apparatus in a playground, a playroom, or a gymnasium. A minimum equipment for a year for less than 200 children would be two outer-seam small-sized basket-balls, often called soccer-balls, to be used for most games (including soccer football), one volley-ball, three indoor baseballs, and one bat. Next in order come simple pieces of apparatus: one giant stride, two low horizontal bars, one ten-foot frame with four swings, and a jumping-pit.

Necrology

From December 31, 1917, to December 31, 1918

BY C. W. BARDEEN, SYRACUSE, N.Y., CHAIRMAN OF COMMITTEE

No one in the audience at the Pittsburgh meeting, when Mrs. **Ella Flagg Young** (January 15, 1845—October 26, 1918), seventy-three years old but alert and vigorous, said, looking down at her gown, "Why, since the war began I haven't even thought of clothes," imagined that in a little more than three months she would add her life to the sacrifices she was making. In traveling for the Liberty Loan Committee in Wyoming she contracted the influenza but refused to yield and continued her trip. Pneumonia developt and she died in Washington.

She was the most noted woman ever known in public-school work. She was graduated from the Chicago Normal School and taught in that city from 1862 to 1915, beginning at seventeen as teacher in a primary grade. She became principal of the Skinner School, and in 1887 was appointed district superintendent, but in 1899 resigned, not approving the policies of the superintendent. President Harper appointed her professor of education in the University of Chicago, and she remained there until 1905, when she refused to stay after John Dewey went to New York. She was then made principal of the Chicago Normal School, and in 1909 was elected superintendent of schools. Her principal efforts were to secure the enlargement of the kindergarten course, an increase in the scope of vocational training, and the simplification of the curriculum of the primary grades. When in 1913 there was a movement to dismiss her she resigned, declining to return unless her enemies on the board were removed. Five of them resigned, and she was reelected but finally withdrew two years later and lived in retirement in California until 1917, when Secretary McAdoo appointed her a member of the Woman's Liberty Loan Committee, to which she devoted herself until her death.

She was a member of the State Board of Education from 1888 to 1912, president of the State Teachers' Association in 1910, and for her the organization of Chicago elementary principals is named the Ella Flagg Young Club. She was editor of the *Educational Bi-Monthly* from 1906 to 1909. She was author of *Isolation in the School* (1909), *Ethics in the School* (1902), and *Some Types of Modern Educational Theories* (1902), all in the series of "Contributions to Education," University of Chicago; she was also the author of other monographs and collaborated in the Young and Field *Literary Readers*. She was especially alert and keen in debate, and in discussion seldom failed to convince her audience. Jane Addams said of her, "She had more general intelligence and character than any other woman I knew."

She became a life director of the National Education Association in 1900 and presented papers in 1887, 1893, 1896, 1901, 1903, 1906, 1907, 1908, 1911, 1916, 1917, and 1918. In 1910 she was elected president, the first woman to hold that office.

Even more sudden was the death of her successor as superintendent of the Chicago schools, **John Daniel Shoop** (March 3, 1857—August 9, 1918). He had spoken the night before on "The Life-Element in Education" and was awaiting his call to appear before the Parke County Teachers' Institute at Rockville, Ind., when he died suddenly of heart failure while reading a newspaper.

He was educated at the Indiana Normal University, Cook County Normal School, Lake Forest College, and the University of Chicago. He was superintendent of schools

in Bloomingburg, Ohio, 1886–88; in Saybrook, Ill., 1889–90; in Gibson City, Ill., 1891–96; in Paris, Ill., 1897–1901; and had since then been connected with the schools of Chicago, becoming assistant superintendent in 1909 and superintendent in 1915. He is said to have been able to call by name every one of the 7,000 teachers, and his success in holding boys in school was from the first unusual. He had been a member of the National Education Association since 1900.

Two former presidents of the department of superintendence ended long lives in peaceful retirement. **Henry Sabin** (October 23, 1829—March 22, 1918) was graduated from Amherst in 1852; taught in Connecticut, New Jersey, Illinois, and Iowa, where he was superintendent of public instruction during the periods 1888–92 and 1894–98. He was president of the State Teachers' Association in 1878.

He became a member of the National Education Association in 1889, and was president of the National Education Association, Department of Superintendence in 1903. He was made chairman of the National Education Association Committee on Rural Schools in 1895, his report, mostly written by himself, being his most notable contribution to education. He was a member of the Council of Education. He presented papers and reports and took part in discussions at nearly every meeting from 1887 to 1900, for the last time in 1912. He stood for what was old and establisht in education, and his *Talks to Young People* (1899) and *Common Sense Didactics* (1903) had large sale. He was popular as a lecturer, and his last years were, as his friend President Seerley has said, full of high aims and noble realizations. Mr. Sabin had lived since 1913 with his sons in California.

David Pritchard Kiehle (February 7, 1837—April 7, 1918) had also spent his last seven years on the Pacific Coast at Portland, Ore. He was graduated from the Albany Normal School in 1856, from Hamilton College in 1861, and from the Union Theological Seminary in 1865. He was pastor at Preston, Minn., 1865–73; county superintendent of schools, 1869–75; principal of the St. Cloud Normal School, 1875–81; state superintendent of public instruction, 1881–93; and professor of pedagogy in the University of Minnesota 1893–1902 and since then professor emeritus; and once more pastor at Preston, 1905–10. As superintendent he secured a one-mill school tax, the state library law, and reorganization of the high schools, and he establisht a college of agriculture at the University. He was president of the Department of Superintendence in 1895. He was, as the *American School* says, a man of high ideals with markt qualities of leadership, a forcible public speaker, a congenial companion, and a good friend.

Forty years ago there were no more constant or interesting attendants at our meetings than Mrs. **Marie Kraus-Boelte** (November 8, 1836—November 1, 1918) and her peppery but lovable husband, who was always getting into difficulties in discussion, from which his delightful wife extricated him. She was born in Mecklenburg, the daughter of a prominent lawyer and magistrate. She studied kindergarten methods with Froebel's widow and Dr. Lange, and began teaching in London in 1860 under Frau Bertha Ronge. In 1868 she establisht a kindergarten in Lübeck. In 1872 she came to America and establisht a model kindergarten. In 1873 she married John Kraus, a disciple of Pestalozzi-Diesterweg-Froebel methods, and they establisht a training school for kindergartners in New York City, which Mrs. Kraus-Boelte continued after her husband's death in 1896. The school graduated more than seven hundred kindergartners, and it represented with remarkable fidelity the principles of Froebel. Mrs. Kraus-Boelte herself proved an inspiration to all that is true and womanly. She was invited to unite her work with Columbia and New York universities but preferred to retain her freedom in private training. She lectured in New York University and in Hunter college.

Another constant attendant was **Betty A. Dutton** (August 12, 1840—January 30, 1918) for fifty-eight years a teacher in the Kentucky Street School in Cleveland, and for forty-six years principal, retiring in 1917. She became a member of the National Education Association in 1880, and was a life director and a member of the Council of Education. She was a speaker in 1889, 1895, 1898, and 1899.

With her was for many years to be seen her close friend **Ellen G. Reveley** (died April 7, 1918), who became a member of the National Education Association in 1891 and took part in the proceedings in 1891, 1904, and 1905. She was born in Verona, N.Y., taught for a time in Rome, and then went to Cleveland as grade teacher. She rose rapidly, becoming principal of a grade school, principal of the normal school, and finally, under Superintendent Draper, supervisor of primary grades for the entire city. Dr. William T. Harris called her one of the real educational thinkers of her day. She retired in 1903 and had since lived in Syracuse. She was a power in the schools, always loyal, farsighted, and effective.

Another familiar face was that of **Henry Romaine Pattengill** (January 4, 1852—November 26, 1918). He was graduated in 1874 from the University of Michigan, and was superintendent for two years at St. Louis, Mich., and for eight years at Ithaca, Mich. In 1884 he became associate editor of the *Michigan School Moderator*, and after a year at Grand Rapids removed to Lansing. He was assistant professor of English at the Michigan Agricultural College, 1885–89, resigning because of popularity as an institute worker. In 1892 he was elected state superintendent of public instruction and was reelected in 1894. He had served on the state board of library commissioners since 1902, had been president of the State Teachers' Association, and in 1914 was candidate of the Progressive party for governor. He was the first to advocate the township system, did much to make education compulsory, aroused interest in the teaching of current events, and made physical training an issue. His great work, however, was in training teachers. His motto was, "Inspire or expire." He was frank, sincere, fearless, human. He liked to be called "Pat," named one of his song books *Pat's Pick*, and when he took a party to the National Education Association there were songs and laughter all the way. He had been a member since 1892.

Among those who have been frequent speakers in late years was **Luther Halsey Gulick** (December 4, 1865—August 13, 1918), who was born in Honolulu. He was educated at Oberlin and the Sargent School, Harvard, and was graduated in 1889 from the medical college of New York University. He was physical director in Y.M.C.A. work, 1886–1903; principal, Pratt Institute High School, 1900–1903; director of physical training, New York City, 1903–8, and since then director of the department of child hygiene, Russell Sage foundation; editor of the *Physical Education Review*; president of the American Physical Education Association of America, in the founding of which he played a leading part; secretary of the Public Schools Athletic League of New York; and a member of the Olympic Games Committee at Athens in 1906. His name is especially linkt with the Camp Fire Girls, whose organization he had headed since 1913. He joined the National Education Association in 1903 and spoke at the meetings in 1908, 1909, 1910, 1912, 1914, and 1915.

Another recent speaker was President **Charles Richard Van Hise** (May 29, 1857—November 19, 1918), graduated from the University of Wisconsin in 1879, and since then a member of the faculty, and president since 1904. In his inaugural address he exprest an ideal which he steadily maintained, "I shall never be content until the beneficent influence of the University of Wisconsin reaches every family in the state." He held first rank as a geologist and had been a member of the United States Geological Survey since 1883. He joined the National Education Association in 1908 and took part in the meetings of 1908, 1912, and 1917.

Another college president who spoke in 1904 and 1906 was **Elisha Benjamin Andrews** (January 10, 1844—October 30, 1918). He fought in the Civil War where he sustained wounds which resulted in the loss of an eye. He was graduated from Brown University in 1870, and studied at Newton and in Germany. He was ordained in 1874; was president of Denison University, 1875–79; professor of political economy in Cornell University, 1888–89; and president of Brown University, 1889–98, resigning when his silver-dollar views were unacceptable. He was superintendent of schools in Chicago, 1898–1900,

the third in that office who died during the year. He was chancellor of the University of Nebraska from 1900 until 1909, when he removed to Florida, broken in health. He had been a member of the National Education Association since 1899.

Another man, twice a college president in his diversified career, was Colonel **Homer Baxter Sprague** (October 19, 1929—March 23, 1918). He was valedictorian at Yale University in 1852, was admitted to the bar in 1854, and practiced at Worcester, and was principal of the high school there from 1865 to 1869. He then went to New Haven to practice and was a member of the board of education, but when the Civil War broke out he raised two military companies and became colonel. He was wounded and a prisoner. He was educational superintendent of freedmen's courts, 1865–66. In 1866 he became principal of the Connecticut State Normal School. It was closed and he became principal of the West Meriden High School. He was elected to the legislature to reopen the normal school, which he succeeded in doing. He was professor of rhetoric at Cornell University, 1868–70; principal of the Adelphi Academy, 1870–75; headmaster of the Girls' High School, Boston, 1876–85; founder and first president of the Martha's Vineyard Summer School, 1879–82; president of Mills College, 1885–86; president of the University of North Dakota, 1887–91; and professor in Drew Theological Seminary, 1896–1900. He was president of the American Institute of Instruction, 1883–85; member of the Council of Education, 1887–88; and for many years a noted lecturer and frequent contributor to the press. He was a speaker at the National Education Association in 1887, 1888, and 1890 and had been a member since 1903.

Andrew Dickson White (November 7, 1833—November 4, 1918) was an earlier speaker, appearing twice in 1874. He was one of the country's great men, not only as founder and president of Cornell University, but as a statesman and a diplomatist, with record too long and too well known to be repeated here.

Of advocates of special causes before the National Education Association Archbishop **John Ireland** (September 11, 1838—September 25, 1918) came to this country as a boy, reacht St. Paul in 1852, entered the Cathedral School there, studied theology in France, was ordained a priest in 1861, and served for a year as a chaplain in the 5th Minnesota. He became rector of the cathedral at St. Paul, in 1875 was consecrated bishop, in 1884 succeeded to the see of St. Paul, and in 1888 was named archbishop. He was the author of *The Church and Modern Society*. In 1869 he organized a temperance movement with such zeal that he was referred to as "a consecrated blizzard." He at one time conceived the idea of consolidating the Catholic parochial schools and the public schools. The plan was tried at Fairibault and Stillwater, Minn., but friction which the Archbishop could not relieve arose, and the scheme was dropt. He was founder of the Hill Seminary on the Minnesota side of the Mississippi River. To this he gave his highly prized private library, one of the most comprehensive in the Northwest. One of his early works was the founding of a colony of 900 Catholic farmers in western Minnesota in 1876.

He delivered addresses before the National Education Association in 1890 on "State Schools and Parish Schools—Is Union between Them Impossible?" and in 1902 on "Devotion to Truth: the Chief Virtue of the Teacher." He also spoke in 1902 before the Department of Indian education.

The question of parochial schools was also discust in 1889 by Bishop **John Joseph Keane** (September 12, 1839—June 22, 1918), former rector of the Catholic University of America, who resigned in 1897 to go to Rome as member of the papal household. He had been a life director of the National Education Association since 1889 and spoke also twice in 1898.

The subject of Indian education was discust in 1907 by **Francis E. Leupp** (January 2, 1849—November 19, 1918). He was graduated from Williams College in 1870, and was editor of the *New York Evening Post* and *Syracuse Herald* from 1878 to 1885, and member of the United States Board of Indian Commissioners from 1905 to 1909. He was a leader in civil-service reform.

Others who will be remembered are **William Lucas Steele** (died May 5, 1918), for thirty-three years superintendent at Galesburg, Ill., a member since 1890, reading a paper in 1899 on the elective system in high schools; **Henry O. Wheeler** (born in 1841, died July 17, 1918), a first lieutenant in the Civil War, graduated from the University of Vermont in 1867, a lawyer in Burlington, 1871–80, and superintendent of schools there, 1880–1913, a member since 1905; **Warren E. Knapp** (January 22, 1850—October 14, 1918), educated at Cornell, who went to Fort Collins, Colo., in 1882, as a banker, and two years later to Denver as principal of Franklin School, becoming in 1885 superintendent of Arapahoe County, and after two terms in 1902 principal of Cheltenham School, Denver, a member since 1907; **Theodore C. Mitchill** (fifty-two years old, died December 27, 1918), graduated from Columbia in 1886, and since 1910 principal of the Jamaica High School, member since 1905; and **William A. Campbell** (June 6, 1852—November 23, 1918), district superintendent in New York City, a member since 1905.

STANDARD LIBRARY ORGANIZATION AND EQUIPMENT FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF DIFFERENT SIZES

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON LIBRARY ORGANIZATION AND EQUIPMENT

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FOREWORD

C. C. CERTAIN, CHAIRMAN

The Library Committee of the Department of Secondary Education of the National Education Association was organized in 1915 at the annual meeting in Oakland, Calif. The members of the Committee at that time decided that two purposes should be carried out during the year: first, to investigate actual conditions in high-school libraries throughout the United States; and second, to make these conditions known to school administrators and to secure their aid in bettering existing conditions. The first purpose was accomplisht thru a series of surveys, including the states of the South, of the Middle West, of the West, and of the East. A report based upon these surveys was presented to the Secondary Department at the New York City meeting in 1916 and publisht in the *Proceedings* of that year. Gathered together at that meeting were high-school principals, teachers, librarians, and state and city superintendents, who, in discussing the problems relating to high-school libraries, gave a new conception of the status of the library in the high school. It was thru this program that the Committee accomplisht its second purpose. Taking part in the discussions at the meeting were such men as Dr. Davidson, of Pittsburgh, Pa.; Mr. Jesse B. Davis, of Grand Rapids, Mich., and Professor Charles Hughes Johnston, of Urbana, Ill. A full account of the meeting, with papers contributed by the speakers, is publisht in the *National Education Association Proceedings* for 1916.

It was the sense of the department at that time that the Library Committee should be continued and that it should work out a constructive program of library development acceptable to the Secondary Department. Professor Johnston consented to take the leadership in this movement. He was also chairman of the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. As chairman of this Commission he organized a library committee with the purpose of preparing, under the guidance of the members of the Commission, a much more detailed report than seemed possible in the National Education Association. It was my great pleasure to act as chairman of this Library Committee of the Commission and to work under the leadership of Professor Johnston. He planned to secure the adoption of the projected report by the North Central Association and then to present it to the Secondary Department of the National Education Association for similar action.

Professor Johnston's untimely death in the early stages of these plans brought irreparable loss to the teaching profession; but his plans, which were projected with characteristic clearness and vigor, have survived and have been given expression in the following report prepared by the Library Committee of the Commission. I was askt to accept the chairmanship of the Library Committee of the Secondary Department and hence have

had the privilege of carrying out the program planned by Professor Johnston. According to his plans I have presented the report of the Library Committee both to the North Central Association and to the Secondary Department of the National Education Association. The report has been adopted by both organizations. The action of these organizations has thus given school administrators a national standard for high-school library development.

The Library Committee has been instructed to prepare a report on "Methods of Using the Library in Teaching the High-School Subjects," to be presented at the next annual meeting of the Secondary Department.

THE NEED FOR HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY STANDARDIZATION

JESSE NEWLON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, LINCOLN, NEBR.

In the building of high schools in the past twenty-five years it has been the custom to provide adequately, or approximately so, for science and a little less generously for household arts and manual arts. I do not wish to say anything whatever in disparagement of the provision made for science. We have not provided more than adequately; we have invested no more money in science than we should. In fact, the war is teaching us that we must spend more money in every line than we have ever spent before. But in planning our high schools we have overlookt, with very few exceptions, the high-school library.

What is true of high schools in general is true of junior high schools in particular. The library in the junior high school is just as important as the library in the senior high school; indeed, far more so in many respects. Most boys and girls leave school before they reach the senior high school, in fact before they reach the tenth grade of the public schools. If we are really to teach them to use the library, if we are really to create in them an interest in good books, an interest in study, it must be done in the junior high school. In my mind the need of library development applies in particular to the junior high school.

There are few well-planned high-school libraries in the United States. Sometimes there is a large study-hall for the library—generally just one room with no workroom or conveniences of any kind for the library staff. The reason for this has been that in the science department we have had definite standards by which to design. These standards have been workt out during many years in the colleges and in the secondary schools. We have appreciated the importance of science in the high-school curriculum. We have had standards in the university laboratories. In the laboratories in the high schools we have laboratory equipment. It has been easy, therefore, to convince boards of education that it is necessary to provide these—and so for the chemistry department, the physics department, or for science of whatever kind common to the curriculum. We have been

able to take boards of education to neighboring cities and show them what has been done, but we have been unable to do that in the library field.

Herein lies the importance of the report on *Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools of Different Sizes*. For the first time administrators see that the library is the very heart of the high school. It will be possible now for those of us who believe in the importance of the library to talk in definite terms to boards of education when we are planning junior and senior high schools. I have had that pleasure within the last four months. In drawing up my plans I have been able to refer to this recent report setting forth library standards, and I am happy to say that in these two schools we are going to provide as adequately for the library as for the science and manual-arts departments.

Those of us who deal with boards of education know that we are likely to get what we want if we know what we want. The person who approaches the board of education with a definite program in mind, knowing exactly what he wants, with recommendations and reasons for it, is likely to get what he wants, and that is true of the community. School superintendents and boards of education who have a constructive program to put before the community with good reasons for it will win, nine cases out of ten, and so this library report will make it possible to get good libraries—a thing we have not had in the past. Of course there are a few exceptions, but in general we do not have adequate arrangements in our high schools, either in room, in equipment, or in staff for libraries.

I am very happy to say that at the meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in March we adopted this report as one of the recommendations of the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula, and that similar associations of colleges and secondary schools in the South and Northwest and in various other parts of the country are likely to take similar action. We can now offer boards of education a report that is official—really official. This report represents the best thought of those who have studied libraries thruout the country. Great good will come from that.

SUGGESTIONS TO STATE HIGH-SCHOOL INSPECTORS

It is suggested that a committee be organized in each state to make a survey of library conditions in high schools. To begin the work of standardizing libraries, actual conditions should be studied in relation to the standards given in this report.

A complete survey should be made including such items as: (1) appropriate housing and equipment; (2) professionally trained librarians; (3) scientific service in the selection and care of books and other printed material, and in the proper classification and cataloging of this material; (4) instruction in the use of books and libraries; (5) adequate annual appropriations for salaries and for the maintenance of the library, for the

purchase of books, for supplies, and for general upkeep; (6) a trained librarian as state supervisor of all the school libraries of the state.

Based upon this survey, a schedule of systematic library development should be outlined, with definite annual goals to be attained, until all standards have been achieved.

It is estimated that not more than five years should be required for the complete achievement of standards as given in this report.

Representatives of the state educational department and of the state library commission should be members of the surveying committee.

A statement of library conditions should be contained in the annual reports of state departments of education and in the reports of high-school inspectors.

STANDARD HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

This report endeavors to suggest a practical working standard for the following types of high schools:

I. Junior high schools. Page 17.

II. High schools with enrolment below 200. Page 18.

III. Four-year high schools or senior high schools with enrolment between 200 and 500. Page 20.

IV. Four-year high schools or senior high schools with enrolment between 500 and 1000. Page 22.

V. Four-year high schools or senior high schools with enrolment between 1000 and 3000. Page 23.

Appendix:

I. Acknowledgments. Page 25.

II. References. Page 25.

Appraisal by Educational Leaders.[1]

REQUISITES OF A STANDARD LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

The requisites of a standard library organization are: (I) appropriate housing and equipment of the high-school library; (II) professionally trained librarians; (III) scientific selection and care of books and other printed matter, and the proper classification and cataloging of this material; (IV) instruction in the use of books and libraries as a unit course in high-school curricula; (V) adequate annual appropriations for salaries and for the maintenance of the library, for the purchase of books and other printed matter, for the rebinding of books, for supplies, and for general upkeep; (VI) a trained librarian as state supervisor to be appointed as a member of the state education department, as in Minnesota, or under the library commission in co-operation with the state education department, as in New Jersey.

[1] See supplement accompanying this report.

ATTAINABLE STANDARDS

The following standards are recommended as attainable in the high schools of the United States within the next five years. In general these standards apply to all high schools.

I. HOUSING AND EQUIPMENT[1]

A. SCIENTIFIC PLANNING

In establishing a new high school or a new library in a high school, the librarian should be secured in ample time to aid in planning the library room and in selecting the equipment and books. No school superintendent or high-school principal should undertake to plan a new library without the expert assistance of a trained librarian. Crudely designed libraries are wasteful of funds, of space, of time, and of educational force.

B. INTEGRAL PART OF HIGH-SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

The library must be an integral part of the high school, housed in the school building, and should not as a rule be open to the general public.[2]

1. *The Room and its appointments.*—The library reading-room must be centrally located, well lighted, and planned appropriately with reference to general reading, reference, and supplementary study. It must be emphatically a place of refinement, comfort, and inspiration. The room in all its appointments should be a place essentially attractive to high-school students and should be made as free of access to them as is possible.

2. *Freedom of access.*—Freedom of access to the library must imply, not only freedom to consult books for reference and for supplementary and collateral study, but also freedom to read books for recreation and pleasure. The pupils should have direct access to the bookshelves.

C. THE READING-ROOM

1. *Location.*—A central location on the second floor is usually found most satisfactory for the reading-room. It should have an exposure admitting plenty of light and sunshine. It should be separate from the study hall and should not be used for recitation purposes.

It should be near the study hall. The library should be connected with the study hall by a door or special passageway so that students may go from the study hall to the library without the necessity of securing passes to the library. Where this is not feasible the library should be as near as possible to the study hall.

2. *Seating capacity and area.*—The reading-room should be provided with facilities to accommodate at one full period readers numbering from 5 per cent to 10 per cent of the total daily attendance of the school. In high schools enrolling 500 pupils the reading-room should have a seating capacity of from 40 to 50; and those enrolling 1000 should have a seating

[1] Architects and school superintendents planning high-school buildings should have on hand for reference the standards for high-school library rooms set forth in the pamphlets and books marked with an arterisk. Appendix 2, Housing and Equipment.

[2] Local developments in small towns in some instances may make it desirable to open the library to the public.

capacity of from 75 to 100. An area of at least 25 square feet per reader is required for complete accommodations and service. The minimum seating capacity in the small high school should be that of an average classroom.

Tables 3 by 5 feet and seating 6 persons are the standard size recommended. The width of the room should be ample to accommodate from 2 to 3 rows of tables placed with sides parallel to the short walls of the room if the room is rectangular in form. A space of 5 feet should be allowed between the rows of tables and between the tables and the adjacent walls. Two rows of tables should be provided in small high schools and 3 rows in large schools.

3. *Lighting.*—The artificial lighting should be by means of electric ceiling fixtures of either the indirect or semi-indirect type.

4. *Finishes.*—White ceilings and light buff walls give the best lighting effects. Dark colors should be avoided in woodwork and trim.

5. *Wall space.*—All possible surface downward from a point 7 feet above the floor should be utilized for shelving. Chair railing, wainscoting, and baseboards should be omitted, and the walls plastered to the floor. Any necessary baseboards should be added after the shelving is in place.

6. *Floor covering.*—The floor should be covered with linoleum or cork carpet to deaden sound.

D. EQUIPMENT

1. *Indispensable equipment.*—

a) Built-in furniture: Low, open wall shelving to accommodate about eight volumes to the running foot.

The shelving should be placed against the wall spaces of the room. The cases should be made with adjustable shelves, should not be over seven feet high, and should accommodate six or seven shelves. The stationary shelf should be three or four inches above the floor, so that it will not catch all the dust. The shelves should be 3 feet long and 9 inches wide. These should be made of wood by the local carpenter, or steel cases should be purchast. The bottom shelves should be 12 inches wide to take the folio books. In estimating the capacity of shelving, eight books to the foot should be used as a basis. There should be shelving enough to provide for the present collection of books and for the probable additions for the next five years. If the wall spaces are not sufficient for the shelving, free-standing stacks should be installed. The passageway between the stack and the wall should be at least three feet.

The current periodicals should be laid on their sides on the shelves in one section devoted to periodical literature, or a few pigeonholes should be made for them. These should be 12 inches high, 10 inches wide, and 12 inches deep for the average-sized periodical. A few larger ones should be made for folios like the *Scientific American.* Better still, these spaces should be reserved for files of back numbers and for a rack[1] simply

[1] Racks can be secured from reliable makers of library furniture.

constructed to hold current magazines in a vertical position for display. This should be placed on a side wall of the library. If the school has sufficient funds, a standard periodical case[1] for the better display of periodicals should be purchast.

b) Closets: Ample provision should be made for closet space for storing back numbers of magazines, new books, books for binder, stores of supplies, etc., unless this storage space is provided in a librarian's workroom.

c) Furniture: Reading tables, each to accommodate not more than six or eight readers, comfortable chairs, charging desk and desk for reference work, card-catalog case, pamphlet cases, magazine stand, newspaper rack, vertical file, book truck, lockers for librarians.

d) Apparatus: Accession book,[2] Library of Congress catalog cards, blank catalog cards, guide cards, book cards, book pockets, dating slips with dater, library stamp, book supports, shelf markers, typewriter, bulletin boards of corticine, circulating pictures, clippings, cards, and pamphlets.

2. *Additional equipment needed for the most effective work.*—

a) Stack shelving when needed, display case for illustrated editions of books, celluloid holders for handling pictures, files for lantern slides, post cards, victrola records, a globe, a cutting machine, pictures and mottoes on walls, casts, and plants.

b) Ample accommodations should be provided for assembling in the library all illustrative materials used in the high school, such as maps, pictures, lantern slides, and victrola records. In the library these can be made available to all departments thru proper classifications, cataloging, and filing.

E. LIBRARIAN'S WORKROOM

A librarian's workroom of at least 10 by 15 feet should adjoin the reading-room.[3] It should be equipt with a desk for cataloging, a typewriter table, a typewriter with card-cataloging attachment, chairs, shelves, and ample closet space for storage of new books being cataloged and of old books being repaired.

F. LIBRARY CLASSROOM[4]

A library classroom also should, if possible, adjoin the reading-room. It should be furnisht with from thirty to sixty chairs with tablet arms, a small stage, complete lantern outfit, moving-picture outfit, victrola, reflectoscope, table, and bulletin boards of corticine. Not more than two-thirds of the room should be occupied with chairs. A room so equipt would serve as a model classroom for visual instruction and should be available for use by teachers of all departments wishing to use slides, pictures, illustrated

[1] This has provision for current magazines on top and drawers below for storing back numbers. Can be purchast from dealers in standard library furniture.

[2] It is possible to dispense with the accession book. Accession numbers may be used, arranged in the order of bills and entered in blocks in a small notebook.

[3] Preferably at one end of the reading-room.

[4] In the construction of special rooms, glass partitions and glass doors simplify the problem of supervision.

books, or victrola records kept in the library. The walls should be equipt with posting surfaces of cork or burlap for the display of posters and pictures.

NOTE.—For specifications as to standard library shelving and furniture, also planning of school library room, architects and school superintendents are referred to the following authorities:

School Library Management, by Martha Wilson. The H. W. Wilson Co., 958 University Ave., New York City.

Small Library Buildings, by Cornelia Marvin. American Library Association Publishing Board, 78 E. Washington St., Chicago, Illinois.

G. COMMITTEE ROOMS FOR SOCIAL STUDIES[1]

There should be one or more committee rooms, among these the library classroom, adjoining the library, where students could work in groups upon problems assigned them in English, history, civics, economics, and other high-school subjects. It is also desirable that the offices of the heads of the department of English and of the social-studies department should be connected conveniently with the library.

H. STACKROOM

A stackroom is rarely necessary, except in the case of the very large high school in which many surplus books must be stored, such as textbooks and library books that are rarely used.

II. THE LIBRARIAN

A. QUALIFICATIONS

The librarian in the high school should combine the good qualities of both the librarian and the teacher and must be able to think clearly and sympathetically in terms of the needs and interests of high-school students.

A wide knowledge of books, ability to organize library material for efficient service, and successful experience in reference work should be demanded of every librarian. Most of all should the personality of the librarian be emphasized. Enthusiasm and power to teach and inspire are as essential in the high-school librarian as in the teacher. Successful library experience in work with boys and girls of high-school age, either in the reference room, in the children's department or school department of a public library, or in a high school should be required of candidates. Successful teaching experience in a high school is a valuable asset in the librarian.

B. PROFESSIONAL REQUIREMENTS

The standard requirements for future appointments of librarians in high schools should be a college or university degree with major studies in literature, history, sociology, education, or other subjects appropriate to any special demands, as, for example, those of the technical high school, upon the library. In addition the librarian should have at least one year

[1] Preferably a . one end of the reading-room.

of postgraduate library training in an approved library school and one year's successful library experience in work with young people in a library of standing.

1. *Approved library schools.*—By approved library school is meant a school which meets the standards of library training set up by the Committee on Library Training in the American Library Association and adopted by the Committee on High School Libraries in the National Education Association. The following meet these standards and are approved by the National Education Association Committee on High School Libraries:

New York State Library School, Albany, N.Y.
University of Illinois Library School, Urbana, Ill.
The University of Wisconsin Library School, Madison, Wis.
Western Reserve Library School, Cleveland, Ohio.
Simmons College Library School, Boston, Mass.
Pratt Institute Library School, Brooklyn, N.Y.
New York Public Library School, New York, N.Y.
Atlanta Library Training School of the Carnegie Library, Atlanta, Ga.
Carnegie Library School, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Syracuse University Library School, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N.Y.
Los Angeles Public Library Training School, Los Angeles, Cal.

The following library schools which have been recently established give courses of one year or more in library training and are under consideration for approval by the National Education Association Committee on High School Libraries:

Los Angeles Library School, Public Library, Los Angeles, Cal.
California State Library School, Sacramento, Cal.
St. Louis Library School, Public Library, St. Louis, Mo.
University of Washington Library School, Seattle, Wash.

2. *Standard library-training courses.*—For information as to the standing of any library-training course in the country write to the Chairman of the Committee on Library Training, American Library Association, 78 East Washington St., Chicago, Ill., or to Mary E. Hall, Girls' High School, Brooklyn, N.Y., chairman of Committee on High School Libraries, National Education Association.

3. *Authoritative information.*—For help in securing efficient librarians for high schools apply to the directors of library schools listed in the foregoing paragraphs or to the Chairman of the Committee on High School Libraries, National Education Association. Help may also be secured from the Secretary of the American Library Association, 78 East Washington St., Chicago, or by writing to the secretary of the state library commission of any state having such a commission at the state capitol. Most states have such a commission.

C. SALARIES

The salary of a high-school librarian should be adequate to obtain a person with the qualifications set forth in this report. It should not be lower than that of the English teacher, but it may be necessary to pay a higher salary when there is an oversupply of English teachers and an undersupply of librarians.

D. ADMINISTRATIVE REQUIREMENTS

1. *The library staff.*—The library staff should be sufficiently large to keep the library open continuously thru the day session, also before and after the session and evenings for night school, if local need demands this.

2. *Status of the librarian.*—In high schools having heads of departments the librarian should be made head of the library department, with status equal to that of the heads of other departments.

3. *Trained assistants.*—For every one thousand students in daily attendance a full-time trained assistant librarian is needed to help in the reference, technical, and clerical work and to allow the librarian time for conference with teachers and pupils, to give instruction, and to visit classes.

Professional requirements for assistant librarians: Standard requirements for assistant librarian should be the same as for the librarian. There should be no distinction between librarian and assistant librarian in the requirements for eligibility except in the matter of library experience.

4. *Judicious distinction in library service.*—In the administration of the library distinctions should be made as to clerical, administrative, technical, and educational work.

a) Clerical work: Clerical work of the high school of the nature of office work should not be demanded of the librarian. Under no circumstances should the librarian be expected to do clerical work properly required in the principal's office, such as keeping records of attendance and official records. To require such work of trained librarians is wasteful of educational resources and money.

Free textbooks should not be stored in the library, and they should be handled, not by the library staff, but by a special book clerk.

b) Administrative work: The administrative work may be summarized as follows: Directing the policy of the library, selecting books, purchasing books, planning the room and its equipment, keeping records of expenses and planning the annual library budget, planning and directing the work of trained or student assistants, and building up a working collection of pamphlets, clippings, and of illustrative material.

The librarian should be present at all teachers' meetings held with reference to courses and policy governing instruction and should have the ability to work for and with teachers so well that mistakes in adaptation of book collections to needs may not occur.

NOTE.—These requirements are also approved by the New York State Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York and by the Association of American Library Schools.

c) Technical work: The technical work may be summarized as follows: The classifying, cataloging, indexing, and filing of all printed matter so that it may be readily available for use; establishing a practical charging system to keep track of books and other materials borrowed from the library; attending to the proper binding and rebinding of books; and keeping necessary records and statistics of additions to library, use of library, etc.

d) Educational work: The educational work may be summarized as follows:

(1) *Reference.*—Helping teachers and students to find suitable material on special topics, notifying teachers of new books and articles along professional lines, looking up answers to questions which have come up in classroom or laboratory, and preparing suggestive reference reading along the lines of the course of study.

(2) *Instruction.*—Systematic instruction of students in the use of reference books and library tools, such as card-catalog indexes, etc., by the giving of lectures, quizzes, and practical tests. In this instruction the relationship of the high-school library and the public library and the relation of a library to life outside of school should be emphasized.

(3) *Educational and vocational guidance.*—Cultural and inspirational work in widening the interests of the students and in cultivating a taste for good reading. This is done thru posting interesting material on bulletin boards and compiling lists of interesting reading in books and magazines, thru reading clubs and personal guidance of the reading of individual students.

The librarian should also cooperate with vocational counselors in aiding students in the choice of vocations and should have on hand in the library pamphlets, catalogs, etc., on the occupations.

A card record for each student should be kept from year to year, showing the progress of the student's reading interests. Much attention should be given to individual and group conferences.

The work of the assistant librarian, altho under the direction of the librarian in charge, should be coordinate in many respects with that of the librarian and should be along inspirational and educational, as well as technical, lines. The work of the assistant librarian should include, among other duties, keeping records of loans, caring for magazines, newspapers, pictures, and clippings, helping with cataloging, assisting in enforcing discipline, helping in the supervision of clubs, and personally guiding the reading of students.

III. SCIENTIFIC SELECTION AND CARE OF BOOKS

The selection of books should be made with reference to:

1. Educational guidance and local industrial, commercial, and community interests.
2. Laboratory and classroom needs.
3. The general recreational and cultural needs of the students.

All books should be classified, shelf-listed, cataloged, and kept in good repair and in fit condition for ready use.

Book selections should be made by the librarian with the approval of the principal, and must be based upon (1) recommendations by heads of departments and teachers and (2) the general cultural needs of the students.

The library should be provided with the best reference books and with literature that has a natural human appeal to young people. There should be very few books of criticism, a few complete works of authors, a generous proportion of finely illustrated editions of standard books, popular scientific books, special reference books on methods of teaching, pictures appropriate for illustrative purposes, novels, short stories, books of travel, biography, modern drama, modern poetry, weekly and monthly magazines, and newspapers.

Subscription books should be avoided, with certain exceptions known to trained librarians. Information on this subject may be obtained from the state library commission.

Books that are out of date or seldom used should not be allowed to occupy valuable shelf space but should be stored where accessible, or should be otherwise disposed of.

Books greatly in demand should be supplied in duplicate to meet the demand not only adequately but generously.

IV. INSTRUCTION IN THE USE OF BOOKS AND LIBRARIES

One of the following plans should be selected in giving instruction in the use of books and libraries:

A. A minimum of three recitation periods per year should be given in each English course to graded instruction in the use of books and libraries. This instruction should be given by the librarian and credited as a distinct requirement for graduation. The credit should be recorded as a grade in Library Instruction, and not as a grade in English or some other subject.

B. To establish Instruction in the Use of Books and Libraries as a unit course, a minimum of twelve lessons a year should be given to this work. In view of the fact that efficiency of instruction in any department depends upon an intelligent use of the library, the following schedule would seem practicable:

In English three lessons a year should be given to instruction in the use of the library, in history three lessons a year, in Latin one lesson, in Spanish or French one lesson, and in the sciences and manual training together four lessons. The required twelve lessons a year should thus be scheduled for instruction in the use of the library.

Training in library use should include:

1. *The use of books for educational guidance.*—The students should be given systematic guidance in the choice of books helpful to an understanding

of social well-being. Clubs should be organized to study biographies of persons who have achieved peculiar success in particular vocations and of those who have rendered great services to mankind.

2. *The use of books as tools.*—The lessons given should include such topics as the card catalog, magazine indexes, dictionaries, encyclopedias, documents, official city reports, indexes to sets of books, and special and commercial indexes. These lessons should be given early in the high-school course, during the first and second years, that students may use the library intelligently and efficiently.

3. *The use of books as a means of recreation, amusement, and inspiration.*—The students should be encouraged to collect books for personal libraries and should be given information concerning good editions of books, such as the "Everyman Series" and other inexpensive but well-printed editions. They should be taught something of bookbinding and should be fortified against the wiles of unscrupulous book agents. The librarian should organize reading clubs and devise other means of making reading enjoyable.

4. *"Esprit de corps" in handling books as public property.*—Lessons in this connection should be given upon (*a*) the history of printing and bookbinding, (*b*) the care of the physical book, (*c*) cooperation in the care of public property, (*d*) cooperation in securing the greatest benefits from public educational institutions, (*e*) unselfishness in the use of public goods, (*f*) the examination of representative collections of books in the best editions, and (*g*) appreciation of the cost and value of library equipment.

Lessons 2, 3, and 4 should be given to the students when they first enter high school; lesson 1 may be given later.

5. *Relation of high-school and public libraries.*—To relate the work in the high school library to that of the public library and to make clear the uses to students, after school days are over, of an institution which should be a factor in their future mental development, classes should be taken to the public library, where its book resources, rules, methods, departments, catalog, and support can be briefly explained by one of the staff. This should be done in the large cities and small towns as well. Definite outlined instructions can be prepared for the talks which will make them of practical value. Where visits to the library are an impossibility in school hours because of distance, competent members of the library staff may be invited to talk on the subject.

Courses 2, 3, 4, and 5 are the most important. Other courses may be offered in lieu of course 1.

V. ANNUAL APPROPRIATION

The library should receive an annual appropriation of sufficient amount in addition to salaries to provide means for the necessary correlation with all other departments. This appropriation should be increast annually in direct ratio to the increasing library needs of each department and should

include specific amounts for the maintenance and supervision of the library.

The maintenance of the library should not depend upon incidental sources of money, such as school entertainments and "socials." Students may be encouraged to raise funds for the library in appropriate ways, but these funds should be used only for such accessories as make the library more restful, more refreshing, and more attractive. By this means decorations, special equipment, finely illustrated editions, and plants may be secured; but the high school should not be forst to depend upon such means for necessary library service.

The initial expense of the library includes (1) the salaries of the librarian and assistants, which should be on the same schedule as those of other teachers; and (2) the cost of books and equipment.

Funds for maintenance should provide for increase of salaries, additional books, periodicals, binding and other repairs, replacement of worn-out books, Library of Congress catalog cards, general supplies, and funds for general depreciation, for new equipment, and for handling materials borrowed from public-library agencies.

Funds should be provided in such a way that the librarian may take advantage of sales to buy books as they are needed and offered, instead of being forst to buy only once or twice a year, as is customary with most boards of education. A contingent fund is necessary.

A minimum annual appropriation per student should be determined upon for books, pictures, magazines, and newspapers.

For books alone a minimum[1] of 50 cents a student is needed. Not less than $40 a year for magazines is needed even in small high schools.

Funds should be apportioned scientifically by the librarian according to the specific needs of each department or subject, and according to the recreational and cultural needs of the students. A tentative schedule of disbursements should be prepared before book lists are made.

Each department should file with the librarian definite statements of needs, as they are felt thruout the year, and the librarian should make disbursements according to these needs.

In technical, commercial, or academic high schools, after the necessary quota of reference books has been accumulated and other necessary books acquired, the amount spent on books for teaching purposes should not exceed the amount spent on books for general recreational and cultural purposes. It should be borne in mind that the library is primarily for the pupils.

VI. STATE SUPERVISION OF SCHOOL LIBRARIES

A trained librarian should be employed by the state department of education, or by the state department of education in cooperation with the state library commission, to act as supervisor of all public-school libraries

[1] Amounts recommended are based upon prices quoted in 1917.

in the state—normal, high, elementary, and rural. Expert supervision will mean a high standard of efficiency in even the small high schools thruout the state.

In states having no supervisors of libraries high-school inspectors should keep records upon high-school libraries and embody in their reports detailed statements of library conditions in all high schools visited. A six weeks' course in modern library methods would be of advantage to inspectors.

I. JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

The junior high school library should be organized in such a manner as to meet the needs of boys and girls in Grades VII, VIII, and IX. The materials in the library must be suited to the expansion and development of the students and to their natural interests and powers of appreciation and understanding. The library in the junior high school should be sharply differentiated from the library in the senior high school, not only as to the character of books selected, but also as to the kind of service expected from the librarian. It should contribute to more varied and extensive interests. Unlike the library of the senior high school, the library of the junior high school does not require the kind of material and the character of service necessary to a high degree of intensive study, concentration, and application in definite specialization.

The organization of the library in the junior high school should conform to the organization of the junior high school curriculum. Unremitting attention should be given to the details of supervised study when the students come to the library to do supplementary study or collateral reading.

1. *Housing and equipment.*—What has been recommended as to attainable standards with reference to location, size of reading-room, furniture, and equipment applies equally well to the junior high school library.

2. *The librarian.*—The librarian should be a student of children and adolescent psychology and should have sufficient culture and professional training to select books discriminatingly from the standpoint of the appropriateness and the educational value of their subject-matter. The librarian should be prepared to give tactful and intelligent supervision to the reading of the children.

The librarian should be a graduate of an approved library school[1] with special training in children's work and should be a normal-school graduate with college or university training in addition, or a college or university graduate with special courses in education. The librarian should have had several years' experience in library work with children, or in reference work, or in school-department work in a first-class public library.

The librarian should keep reading records of individual students, to be sent to the senior high schools in which students enrol.

[1] For list of approved library schools see p. 11.

3. *Scientific selection and care of books.*—The statement of Attainable Standards, pages 6 to 17, applies here. It is suggested that the recommendations be adapted to specific needs.

4. *Instruction in the use of books and libraries.*—The statement of Attainable Standards, pages 6 to 17, applies here. It is suggested that recommendations be adapted to specific needs.

5. *Annual appropriations.*—The statement of Attainable Standards, pages 6 to 17, applies here. It is suggested that recommendations be adapted to specific needs.

6. *State supervision.*—A trained librarian should be employed by the state department of education, or by the state department of education in cooperation with the state library commission, to act as supervisor of all public-school libraries in the state—normal, high, elementary, and rural.

II. HIGH SCHOOLS WITH ENROLMENT BELOW 200

1. *Housing and equipment.*—The library should have a separate room whenever it is possible.

If a separate room is not available, a classroom should be fitted up with bookcases and a reading table, and the library atmosphere should be created even if recitations have to be held in the room.

The room should be easily accessible from the study hall and should be open to students only when the librarian or her assistant is in the room.

The room should be well lighted and should have an exposure which will admit plenty of sunlight during the day. The room should be well ventilated and heated. It should be large enough to accommodate the librarian's desk, catalog case, and tables and chairs sufficient to accommodate twenty-five or thirty readers, in addition to the bookshelves.

In small high schools with an enrolment of fewer than one hundred students it is very common to have a main room in which each student has his own desk. This arrangement brings all the students under the direct control of the principal, which is very important. In many of the smaller high schools there are frequent changes in the teaching staff, and the assistant teachers are very often beginners who have not as yet developt good methods of discipline. This plan is also desirable because it strengthens the unity of the school. With this arrangement the students do all their studying at their own desks. Recitations should not be held in the main room. When conditions make possible the use of home desks, library books and equipment should be in this main room, and not in a separate room. Reading tables, bulletin boards, and ample bookshelves should be provided in this room.

So far as the quality of equipment is concerned, the standard should be the same as for libraries in large high schools.

a) Tables and chairs: The size of tables depends upon the size of the room. Tables 8 feet long and 4 feet wide make convenient study tables.

b) Librarian's desk and chair: These may be secured through a local dealer. The flat-top desk and swivel chair would cost about $25.[1] The desk should have drawers on either side of the opening in front and a vertical file below, with drawers on one side. It should be placed near the exit, so that borrowers must pass by the librarian's desk. There should be free access to the shelves. A regular library charging outfit should also be provided. There should be provided also a standard catalog case (3-inch by 5-inch cards), the number of drawers depending on the number of books in the collection. In estimating drawer space 700 cards should be counted to the drawer. Every book requires, on the average, four cards, including the shelf-list card. Five years' normal growth should be provided for in advance. Sectional cases are very satisfactory. A section of drawers should be added as needed, if this style of case is used.

2. *The librarian.*—A full-time librarian with the professional training of a one-year course in an accredited school for librarians is the ideal. In the larger schools this ideal should be realized, but in the smaller it may be necessary to provide "teacher-librarians." This term "teacher-librarian" means a high-school teacher who is relieved of a part of her teaching duties and placed in charge of the school library. To qualify for this work she should have at least a six weeks' course of training in a summer library school approved by the Committee on High School Libraries in the National Education Association, or in a public-library course of training which meets with the approval of this committee.

If college training is essential for the high-school teacher, then college and technical library training are essential qualifications for the librarian. For those schools which cannot have a full-time librarian, with the regular one-year course in library training in an accredited school for librarians, college graduation and an approved short course in library science are preferable.

When the library is under the supervision of a teacher, her daily schedule should be definitely arranged, in order that she may have regular hours in the library. She should then train one or more students to assist her, in order that the library may be open all day. Students should not be admitted to the library when there is no one in charge of it.

3. *Scientific selection and care of books.*—Greater care should be exercised in the selection of books for a small library than for a large one. It is difficult to select the few best books out of a multitude of really good books. Every book purchast for a high-school library should be a useful book and one that will be in constant use. Standard approved lists of books for high schools such as those publisht by the United States Bureau of Education should be used in building up a small library.

[1] These may be purchast from reliable makers of library furniture.

An accredited high school with an enrolment of 100 or fewer students should have a library of not fewer than 1000 carefully selected books, and schools with an enrolment of 200 should have at least 2000 volumes. This means practically ten volumes for every student in the high school. The high-school libraries could cooperate with the public libraries and make use of their reference and other books and of advice and service which the librarians of the public libraries may render. This will increase materially the efficiency of the school library.

The high-school libraries should subscribe to several good magazines, some for teachers, others for students.

4. *Instruction in the use of books and libraries.*—The statement of Attainable Standards, pages 6 to 17, applies here. It is suggested that the recommendations be adapted to specific needs.

5. *Appropriations.*—There should be a definite annual appropriation, however small the amount may be, for the purchase of books, subscriptions to magazines, and equipment and supplies.

The statement of Attainable Standards, pages 6 to 17, applies here. It is suggested that the recommendations be adapted to specific needs.

6. *State supervision.*—A trained librarian should be employed by the state department of education, or by the state department of education in cooperation with the state library commission, to act as supervisor of all public-school libraries in the state—normal, high, elementary, and rural.

III. FOUR-YEAR HIGH SCHOOLS OR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS WITH ENROLMENT BETWEEN 200 AND 500

1. *Housing and equipment.*—Adequate housing and equipment include more than tables, chairs, books, and a corner in the study hall or in a classroom. There should be a library room large enough to seat at one time the largest-sized class in the school. As a rule it should have a seating capacity of at least thirty to fifty. Enough wall space is needed to provide standard shelving not only to hold the present number of books but to allow for a five years' normal growth. Sufficient floor space should be provided to accommodate a rack for periodicals, a vertical filing-case, and a librarian's desk, in addition to chairs and tables. The library room should be located in an accessible and quiet part of the building. The lighting, ventilating, and heating facilities of the room should be designed with particular care. The furniture and shelving should be of good quality and of standard size and made of a finish to harmonize with that of the room.

The same kind of equipment is needed as for larger high schools but on a smaller scale. Tables, a rack for periodicals, chairs, wall cases for books, librarian's desk, a typewriter, catalog case, and bulletin boards are the most important necessities. Additional furniture and equipment should be supplied as needs become imperative.

The library should be a separate room used for neither study-room nor recitation purposes.

If the library must be used as a study hall, students should not only be carefully guided in their use of time in reading but should be systematically aided in the improvement of their methods of study. If conditions are such that a librarian cannot be secured unless the study-hall teacher can be dispenst with, a competent librarian may not only attend to the library work but also advise students in their studies. Under such conditions the library and study hall should of course be combined.

In case that it is impossible to provide a separate room for the library, or combined library and study hall, a section of the assembly hall should be fitted up with reference books, tables, and chairs, or an English or history classroom should be equipt with shelving for books and with at least one table.

2. *The librarian.*—A full-time librarian with training and experience should be in charge of the library. The training should be a course in library methods approved by the National Education Association Committee on High School Libraries, such course to be in a library school, college, university, state library commission, or public library[1] in which an adequate training course is offered.

For the standing of such library courses apply to the Chairman of the Committee on High School Libraries in the National Education Association.

In the small city where the size of the high school alone does not warrant the salary of a trained librarian, the librarian should be employed not only for service in the high school, but also to supervise the grade-school libraries in charge of assistants.

Student assistants for clerical help should be employed when needed.

If the library is under the direction of a teacher a definite daily schedule should be arranged, apportioning the teacher's time between the classroom and the library, and other arrangements should be made for the library to be open all day for reading and reference. Thoroly satisfactory library service, however, cannot be given by a teacher. Every standard high school should have a trained librarian.

Students should not be admitted to the library except when the teacher or other authorized person is in charge.

The supervision of the library should not be intrusted to anyone who has not had at least a six weeks' course of library training approved by the state library commission at the state capitol, or the National Education Association Committee on High School Libraries.

3. *Scientific selection and care of books.*—The proper selection and care of books are as vital considerations for libraries in small high schools as for libraries in large high schools.

[1] The training courses given in public libraries often are limited in scope and apply essentially to local methods, which make them inadequate for general professional training.

For a working library, from 2000 to 3000 carefully selected volumes are necessary. If the number of books is small, a large number of magazines, in proportion, might be taken.

The high school should cooperate systematically with the local public library, if there is one, with the state library commission, the state university extension department, and with other public-library agencies.

If conditions are at all favorable regular service should be secured from the county library.

By proper cooperation with public-library agencies in securing the loan of many necessary books, a generous portion of the book fund may be made available for subscription to a few well-selected magazines, the binding of these magazines for future reference use, and the supplying of a file of pamphlets, clippings, pictures, post cards, and lantern slides for illustrative use in class work. Each school library should have its own permanent collection of important reference books.

The smaller the library the more minute the cataloging should be.

4. *Library instruction.*—The same courses should be given as specified in Attainable Standards, pages 6 to 17.

5. *Annual appropriation.*—Definite funds for books, magazines, and papers are necessary, however small the funds may be.

Though smaller, the funds should be handled as for larger high-school libraries.

6. *State supervision of school libraries.*—Where there is no trained supervisor of school libraries, a six weeks' course in modern library methods would be of advantage to state high-school inspectors visiting small high schools.

IV. FOUR-YEAR HIGH SCHOOLS AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS WITH ENROLMENT BETWEEN 500 AND 1000

1. *Housing and equipment.*—The statement of Attainable Standards, pages 6 to 17, applies here. It is suggested that the recommendations be adapted to specific needs.

2. *The librarian.*—The statement of Attainable Standards, pages 6 to 17, applies here. It is suggested that the recommendations be adapted to specific needs.

In schools of from 500 to 1000 enrolment and *even in some larger schools* conditions may make these qualifications impracticable. For such schools the following recommendations are submitted:

a) High schools with enrolment of 800 and over: The librarian should be a graduate of an approved library school, or should at least hold a certificate for a full one-year course in library economy successfully completed in an approved library school, and should have at least two years of successful experience in library work with young people in a library of standing, or in lieu of one of these years one year of successful teaching experience in a

high school. If the librarian is not a college graduate, four years of experience in library work or in teaching in a high school should be required in addition to the year of training in an approved library school.

b) High schools with enrolment between 500 and 700: A full-time librarian with training and experience should be in charge of the library. If possible, the standard should be the same as recommended above for schools of 800 and over. Where this is impossible the following standards are suggested:

(1) A full-time librarian with college graduation and at least a six weeks' course in library methods approved by the National Education Association Committee on High School Libraries, together with one year of successful library experience. Teaching experience is a valuable asset. The six weeks' course is of necessity superficial, but under some circumstances may be acceptable until higher requirements can be met.

(2) A full-time librarian who is a high-school graduate and has had a course of training in library methods, given by a public library, library commission, college, or other institution approved by the National Education Association Committee on High School Libraries, and in addition two years of experience in a library of standing.

3. *Scientific selection and care of books.*—The statement of Attainable Standards, pages 6 to 17, applies here. It is suggested that the recommendations be adapted to specific needs.

Collections of 3000 to 8000 volumes are needed for high schools of 500 to 1000 enrolment.

4. *Instruction in the use of books and libraries.*—The statement of Attainable Standards, pages 6 to 17, applies here. It is suggested that the recommendations be adapted to specific needs.

5. *Appropriation.*—The statement of Attainable Standards, pages 6 to 17, applies here. It is suggested that the recommendations be adapted to specific needs.

High schools of 500 to 1000 students should have a minimum appropriation of from $200 to $300 per year for books and magazines; $400 to $500 *should* be appropriated.[1]

6. *State supervision of school libraries.*—A trained librarian should be employed by the state department of education, or by the state department of education in cooperation with the state library commission, to act as supervisor of all public-school libraries in the state—normal, high, elementary, and rural.

V. FOUR-YEAR HIGH SCHOOLS AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS WITH ENROLMENT BETWEEN 1000 AND 3000

1. *Housing and equipment.*—The statement of Attainable Standards, pages 6 to 17, applies here. It is suggested that the recommendations be adapted to specific needs.

[1] Amounts recommended are based upon prices quoted in 1917.

Shelving must be provided for a maximum collection of from 10,000 to 20,000 volumes for high schools of from 1000 to 3000 enrolment.

2. *The librarian.*—The statement of Attainable Standards, pages 6 to 17, applies here.

The standard requirement for the future librarian in high schools with an enrolment of 1000 to 3000 should be a college or university degree with major studies in literature, history, sociology, education, or other subjects appropriate to any special demands of the high school upon the library, together with one or two years of postgraduate library training in an approved library school and one year's successful library experience in work with young people in a library of standing.

In high schools of 1000 pupils a full-time trained assistant librarian should be appointed. This assistant should at least have completed satisfactorily a full one-year course in an approved library school.

In large high schools of 2000 to 3000 enrolment, a second assistant in the library should be appointed in addition to the assistant recommended for a school of 1000 pupils. This assistant should have the same professional training as the first assistant, and a library clerk or page or student pages should be employed to assist in general manual and routine work, as keeping records of circulation, listing books for purchase, listing books at bindery, preparing notices on overdue books and lost books, lettering display posters, keeping books in order on shelves, alphabetizing and filing cards, numbering books and pasting labels, and replacing books on shelves. The work of the assistant should be determined by the librarian.

3. *Scientific selection and care of books.*—The statement of Attainable Standards, pages 6 to 17, applies here. It is suggested that the recommendations be adapted to specific needs.

For high schools not exceeding an enrolment of 1000 students, from 5000 to 8000 volumes, not including duplicates, carefully selected, make a good working library.

4. *Instruction in the use of books and libraries.*—The statement of Attainable Standards, pages 6 to 17, applies here. It is suggested that the recommendations be adapted to specific needs.

5. *Adequate appropriation.*—The statement of Attainable Standards, pages 6 to 17, applies here. It is suggested that the recommendations be adapted to specific needs.

High schools of 1000 to 3000 students need as a minimum appropriation from $300 to $500 per year; from $500 to $1200 *should* be appropriated.[1] For binding and rebinding, high schools of 800 to 1000 students need a minimum of $40 a year; high schools of 1200 to 3000 need $75 a year.[2]

[1] Amounts recommended are based upon prices quoted in 1917.

[2] When the library is new it is evident that comparatively little rebinding will be necessary. The need for rebinding and repairing increases with the age of the library and with the increased use of the library materials.

6. *Supervision of school libraries.*—A trained librarian should be employed by the state department of education, or by the state department of education in cooperation with the state library commission, to act as supervisor of all public-school libraries in the state—normal, high, elementary, and rural.

APPENDIX

I. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

1. For many of the definite recommendations of this report the Committee is indebted to the report of the Committee on Library Equipment in the report of the Joint Committee of the National Education Association and National Council of Teachers of English on the Reorganization of English in Secondary Schools, publisht by the Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.

2. Reports also of the Committees of the National Education Association, of the National Society for the Study of Education, and of the American Library Association have been freely consulted.

3. For many definite recommendations as to planning and equipping the library room we are indebted to the pamphlet *School Libraries* published by the Library Bureau, New York.

4. Helpful criticisms[1] have been received from the librarians in the Orange Union High School (350 students), Orange, Cal.; the high school (small high school), White Plains, N.Y.; the Wausau High School (700 students), Wausau, Wis.; Olean High School (small high school), Olean, N.Y.; from librarians in the public libraries of Detroit, Mich.; Cleveland, Ohio; Portland, Ore.; and from other persons in the library and teaching professions.

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REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON TEACHERS' SALARIES, TENURE, AND PENSIONS

I. REPORT ON SALARIES

Owing to the effect of the world-war on prices, the committee has deemed it advisable to make a more extended report on salaries than otherwise would have been necessary. Not only have definite recommendations been made, but data have been appended which support the recommendations made.

The committee has been fortunate in securing the services of a number of persons in preparing this report. While the committee agrees with the conclusions and recommendations set forth, the persons writing the different parts are responsible for the statements of facts.

The report is submitted with the hope that it will not only meet with the approval of the National Education Association, but be found helpful to legislators, school officials, teachers, and the general public.

Joseph Swain, *Chairman*
Ernest C. Moore
Margaret A. Haley
David B. Johnson
Harlan Updegraff
Grace C. Forsythe
James Ferguson
Francis G. Blair
John W. Carr

THE NATION AND THE CRISIS IN ITS SCHOOLS

Apart from the prosecution of the war itself, there is no more urgent problem now before the American people than that created by the threatened collapse of the teaching profession. Collapse is an extreme word, but so is the emergency it describes. The drafting into other work of large numbers of the most capable teachers, the continual opening of new doors of opportunity to thousands of others, the utterly inadequate financial provision for the majority of the remainder—these are no longer matters for debate. They are facts. And they are facts ominous with disaster for the nation. If the American people cannot be made to see the situation and to supply an early and drastic remedy, we shall run the risk, even tho we win the war, of losing much that makes the war worth winning.

Our schools are the spring and origin of our democracy. Of what avail will it be to spend our blood in defending the forms of democratic society if the life that is to fill and energize them is lost? And if our schools suffer, it will be lost. It is futile to declare that this is a matter for the future. If the war has taught us anything, it has taught us that the future becomes the present with fatal rapidity, and that failure to provide for that future in advance is criminal. Foresight then is what is wanted, and again foresight, and yet again foresight. The American people now have a supreme opportunity to exercise foresight in the matter of their schools. Will they exercise it? Or will they kill the goose that lays the golden eggs?

INDUSTRY ATTACHES VALUE TO EDUCATION

Fortunately there are a few departments of education which anybody can see are not only indispensable to the life of the nation, but are as integral parts of the prosecution of the war as the building of ships or the training of armies. A blind man can see that if the teaching of chemistry or engineering or medicine in this country were to suffer, the military arm of the nation would soon be crippled. Fearful lest the supply of skilled workers should fall off, industrial leaders are realizing more fully every day how dependent they are on the flow of trained men from the hands of the schoolmasters. Within a month, for example, a manager of one of the largest munitions plants in the country came to the head of the department of chemistry of one of our colleges with the declaration that he was in need of a chemist particularly fitted for work of a character which he specified.

"You have the very man we want," said he, naming an assistant professor of chemistry in the college in question. "You must let us have him."

"But I can't," replied the professor. "Our department cannot get on without him. He cannot be replaced."

"How much is he receiving here?" inquired the manager.

The head of the department mentioned the salary.

"We will double that," declared the manager without an instant's hesitation, "if he will go to work for us tomorrow morning."

"We cannot meet that offer," said the professor, "but if you take him, don't expect us to keep on sending you the groups of trained chemists that that man has helpt to turn out in the past."

The manager hesitated; the thought seemed to sober him. "You're right," he exclaimed. "I see it. Keep your man. He is more indispensable to us here than he would be in our plant." And the manager went away to seek some other solution of his problem.

That incident presents in miniature the relation of technical education to the war. Every day this war becomes more of a war of expert knowledge. The man behind the desk is as essential as the man behind the gun. Indeed he is the man behind the gun.

All this is so plain in the case of subjects like chemistry, engineering, and medicine that an apology is almost necessary for dwelling on it. But it does not appear to be so plain in the case of subjects just as really, albeit a bit more indirectly, connected with the war. And when it comes to education generally, to the majority of the public it does not appear to be plain at all.

EDUCATION PRESERVES FRUITS OF VICTORY

The argument in many minds seems to run something like this: "Our business at present is to win the war. By all means let us keep the technical schools that have a bearing on that business running full blast. As for the rest of the school system, time enough to attend to that when the war is over." Now, if we knew that the war would be over in a year; or if the country were financially at its last gasp, with taxation passing the limits of the tolerable—if luxury were entirely eliminated, and waste and extravagance things of the past; or if all the able-bodied men and women were at the front, in the factory, or on the farm—then there might be a gleam of reason in a proposition to close the schools till the war was over, or to let them pass into the hands of admittedly inferior persons. Even under such circumstances the proposal would be a desperate one. Culture and education are by their nature continuous things. They are a kind of birth. You cannot disturb the process of physical birth in a nation without disaster. *Neither can you interrupt its spiritual and intellectual life and expect to take it up, unimpaired, where it was dropt.* It would be tragedy indeed if the present generation were to win the war only to have the fruits of victory wasted by a generation incapable of understanding or using them.

A WAR OF SCHOOLMASTERS

Here it is that we touch the center of the misunderstanding concerning this war and general education. This is not merely a war of chemistry and engineering, a war of technical knowledge pitted against technical knowledge; it is a war of cultures and ideals, of ideas pitted against ideas. In this sense it is literally a war of schoolmasters; and only the hope of victory in this latter struggle makes the sacrifices of the other conflict seem worth while. But to achieve that victory the ideas and ideals for which we stand must be kept pure and free-flowing at their source. For that deeper war behind the other is bound to go on long after the physical strife has ceast. Everywhere men make the capital mistake of supposing that the good or the evil of this war is a thing that will be definitely settled on the day when victory is attained and the treaty of peace signed. There could not be a grosser error.

The upshot of this war for humanity, the final good or bad of it, is going to depend on what the nations *do* as a result of it, on whether *it* gets the better of the brain of humanity by stunning it or whether the brain of

humanity gets the better of *it* by understanding it. But this, in the main, lies with the will and the intellect of the next generation, and the will and the intellect of the next generation lie in no small measure in the keeping of the teachers of the present.

MARKEDLY SUPERIOR TEACHERS DEMANDED

It has become a truism that the Germany of today is the product of the German schoolmasters of yesterday. Just as certainly the America of tomorrow, perhaps the world of tomorrow, will be the product of the American teachers of today. What, then, if the American teaching force of today comes to consist of an inferior selection from our present teachers supplemented by high-school girls of no experience, no special training, of temporary tenure, and only passing interest in their work! What if the prophecy of at least one publisher of textbooks be realized, who has declared that only "fool-proof" textbooks must be publisht in America for the present—for the reason, to use his own words, that "we are going to have to deal with just that type of teacher for the next ten or fifteen years"! Such a prediction from an unsentimental business man with an eye to profits should set us thinking. America must not delude herself into believing that she can put her children into the hands of teachers of the "fool-proof textbook" type and yet expect those teachers to turn out a generation of statesmen capable of grappling with the problems of what promises to be the most critical period in the social and political history of mankind. To achieve that result the teachers must be, on the contrary, not only not inferior, but markedly superior, *the best that can be had*, not merely in training and intellectual equipment, but in character, imagination, and social vision—men and women fitted by virtue of what they are to disseminate the spirit of democracy. We must put forever behind us the childish notion that reading, writing, arithmetic, and the rest are all there is to education. For the genuine purposes of life, these are the incidental products of teaching; its central products are those intangible and imponderable things, that total attitude toward life, which the child takes in, as unconsciously as it takes in the air, from the personality of the teacher as a whole. Woe to the future if that personality be of inferior grade!

SALARIES BELOW LEVEL OF SUBSISTENCE

Yet at the present hour, as has been hinted, practically all forces are making in the direction of just such inferiority. There are inducements on every hand for the most successful teachers to leave the profession. There are few inducements for those with promise of success to enter it. With the many branches of military service open to the teacher, with hundreds of industrial concerns bidding for the services of men and women with precisely the equipment that the teacher's training gives, and

with salaries in most of the schools far below even that modest level of subsistence that the teacher has been granted in the past, the profession is bound to undergo, is already undergoing, rapid deterioration. If it be urged that the teacher at this crisis should be patriotic and remain at his post, bearing his part of the sacrifice of the time, the answer is that there is no group of workers in the country who would be less willing, if they could, to escape that sacrifice. They, if anyone, are in a position to know the worth of the thing that is at stake. All they ask is that they shall not be called upon to carry an utterly unjust and crushing share of the burden. All they ask is that they shall be treated in the spirit of President Wilson's recent declaration to Congress that the load the people must shoulder must be equitably placed. "If the burden is justly distributed," were the President's words, "and the sacrifice made a common sacrifice from which none escapes who can bear it at all, [the people of this country] will carry it cheerfully and with a sort of solemn pride." The teachers of the country subscribe unanimously to that creed, but they also ask to have it applied to their case. If it is not, what will happen to the teaching profession can be predicted with accuracy. The teachers of the country will fall roughly into three classes, classes which were already being defined during the decade and a half of sharp rise in prices prior to 1914. The war merely accelerated enormously their formation.

POVERTY DETERIORATES THE PROFESSION

First, there will be what we may call the *endowed class*. This will be a small one and will be confined in the main to the higher branches of education. It will consist of a certain number of financially independent persons who will continue teaching because of the pleasure of the work or the intellectual and social prestige flowing from connection with a college or university. However highly we may think of individuals within this group, the idea is repugnant to every democratic instinct we possess of having any part of our educational system pass under what would inevitably become a kind of upper-caste control.

Second, there will be what we may call the *part-time class*. This will consist of an immense number who will give only a share of their time and energy to teaching: who will teach, but who will not expect their teaching salary to support them. Few outside the profession have any idea how largely the teachers of the country already belong to this class, from the many who earn a few dollars on the side or devote what ought to be their period of intellectual recreation, the summer vacation, to other work, to the few who frankly make their teaching incidental and double or treble their salaries by outside work. The effect of this state of affairs on the profession calls for no comment. No man can serve two masters in the vocational world any more than he can in the moral world. The secret of a strong will is undivided attention. No one can calculate the

degree to which the efficiency of education in this country is already impaired thru the necessity under which thousands of teachers suffer of doing two things at once. What sort of work would the nation expect of its executives and legislators, of its sailors and soldiers, or of its business men, if after their regular day's labor they were compelled to give their attention to some side line of work to eke out a living income? Yet that is exactly what the nation seems to expect of a multitude of its teachers. And bad as this part-time condition is at present, it is bound, unless something radical is done, to become immeasurably worse.

Then there will be a third class of teacher. For it there is no satisfactory name. Were the term not certain to be misunderstood, it might be called the *sweated class*. Perhaps the *exploited class* would be less open to objection. This class will consist in part of teachers who, thru age, or poor health, or family responsibilities, or other circumstances over which they have little or no control, will be able neither to escape from the profession nor to add materially on the side to their teaching income, with the result that they will be compelled to take what is offered them and lower their standard of living accordingly. Such teachers will deserve nothing but sympathy. They will be slaves in outward condition but not in spirit. Much the same will be true of those teachers who, thru a mistaken sense of duty, combined with ignorance of political economy, remain at their desks when they could leave them. But this will not be the case with what it is to be hoped will prove a small group of teachers who, with both power to do otherwise and knowledge of the consequences of their choice, will accept a standard of living below the minimum of what makes genuine human life, as distinguisht from mere living, possible. Surely it is to be hoped that the time may never come when the teacher will not be willing to live simply. A certain austerity of life befits his position of spiritual leadership as it does that of the minister. But simplicity is one thing and a poverty that stunts the soul is another—and at the opposite pole. The teacher who submits to such poverty voluntarily is a slave in spirit as well as in outward fact, and his act degrades not only his own profession but the working world as a whole as certainly as child labor, or coolie labor, or convict labor, degrades it.

LOW SALARIES HARM THE CHILD

And even if poverty did not injure the teacher and his fellow-workers, how could it fail thru him to harm the child under his care? How can he whose function is to awaken life perform that function when life, in the sense of something above mere subsistence, is denied him? And how, on the other hand, can the child be expected to have respect for the things of the mind when he sees those who have devoted a lifetime to them refused the reasonable comforts of existence? "Why should I go into teaching," a high-school girl is reported to have askt an aunt who was urging her to adopt her own

vocation, "Why should I go into teaching when I can get two dollars and a half a day more than you are getting after teaching twenty years?" "Why should *I* want an education?" a boy who had left school for the mines is said to have retorted smilingly to the teacher who was trying to impress on him the need of a high-school education for success in life, "Why should *I* want an education? Why, my dear teacher, I'm making a good deal more than you are, now." What could the teacher say? No one in his senses desires to measure the value of truth in dollars. But you will never convince the rising generation that knowledge is power while it beholds so many of the professional dispensers of knowledge in a state of virtual slavery.

These then are the three classes—an endowed class, a part-time class, a sweated or servile class. These are the divisions into which the American teaching profession will split up if some radical remedy is not adopted. Is this country willing to have its schools, which it has long pointed to with pride as the source of its democracy, pass into the hands of an endowed class, or a part-time class, or a slave class? If it does, democracy in America deserves to perish. And it will perish.

What, then, is the remedy?

There is just one remedy—tho there may seem to be two, owing to the two quite opposite ways thru which it may be attained.

THE SOCIAL NEED FOR HIGHER SALARIES

But before coming to the remedy and the methods of attaining it, let us notice what, emphatically, is not the remedy. The remedy is not to raise teachers' salaries sporadically, here a little and there a little, 25 per cent in this enlightened city, 5 per cent in that benighted one, $500 a year in some industrially booming section where teachers have grown scarce, $50 a year in some out-of-the-way corner of the land where supply and demand in teachers has not been perceptibly affected. "Supply and demand"—that goes to the heart of the matter. *The critical situation of our schools will never be genuinely remedied so long as teachers' services are regarded as a commodity to be purchast at the cheapest obtainable rate in the open market.* That, in too many places, is the present attitude toward the teacher. That attitude must end, or our democracy will end. The teacher must come to be taken for what he is: a public servant, performing a task of unsurpassed importance to the nation, and on that account just as fully entitled to adequate compensation, or its equivalent, as the soldier, the legislator, or the judge. From the kindergarten to the university the teaching profession in America must be lifted, wherever it has fallen below it, to a level that will command for it the full respect of the community and attract into its ranks men and women of the first order. This demand would have been imperative, it is important to notice, even tho the war had not come to complicate matters. The problems of negro and alien education,

to mention no others, especially the presence among us of thousands of foreigners who could not speak a word of English, were questions that, prior to 1914, were pressing for solution. The single staggering fact, brought out in a recent letter of Secretary Lane to the President of the United States, that there were in the United States in 1910 more than five and a half million persons over the age of ten who could neither read nor write in any language, shows better than anything else how incredibly far the country had fallen short, under the free and easy method of regarding teachers' services as a commodity, of creating a genuinely democratic system of education.

THE NATION MUST RESCUE ITS SCHOOLS

All this is simply a way of saying that education is a national matter. The man who denies that at this hour is not worth listening to. The man who denies that education is a national matter is capable of denying that our Army and Navy are national matters, of thinking that our states and towns and cities, left to themselves, could carry on the war. Which is not to imply for a moment that education is *merely* a national matter. May the time never come when the people in this locality or that lose control over the teaching of their own children. But the child is of concern to a wider region than the place in which he is born; and the wealth of a community is no measure of the promise of its human material. Can we permit boys and girls of rare gifts, not to mention average boys and girls, just because they happen to have been born on the outskirts of the country to have only the outskirts of an education? Those boys and girls are the nation's highest assets. The nation must do its share toward bearing the burden of their training. The nation, the state, and the locality each has its function. The nation, either directly or thru the states, must subsidize and stimulate the struggling community, holding it meanwhile to the highest standards; the state, up to the limit of its power, must do the same; while the locality must be lookt to to preserve the principles of variety and individuality against the encroachments of too great centralization. Just now, however, it is the nation that must take the initiative and lead the way—if for no other reason than because, at a moment when immediate action is half the battle, legal and constitutional restrictions tie the hands of many of the states and threaten a delay that will be fatal.

But suppose the nation cannot be made to see its duty. Then there is only one other way, the second of the two methods already mentioned: the teachers, by concerted action and the application of the principle of collective bargaining, must compel the nation to wake up.

But surely this will not be necessary. The war is training the national imagination to see things on a new scale. It is no longer a day when we say, "This ought to be done. We will do it, *provided we can get the money.*" It is a day rather when we say of whatever is vital to the public welfare, "Let this be done." And then we get the money.

It is a day of big things. It is preeminently a day when those who are serving the state must be granted the right of way. The teachers of the country are not only serving the state now; they have been serving it all their lives. They are the captains of the army of understanding: not alone of that technical understanding upon which military victory depends, but of that larger human understanding upon which depends the whole hope and future of the world. If we spend billions to save the world, can we not spend millions to make the world worth saving? If we pour forth our treasure without stint to those who shape our steel and iron, can we not grant at least a living wage to those who are molding our life itself? The nation must come to the rescue of its schools. For a nation without education is a coast without a lighthouse.

TEACHERS' SALARIES AND THE COST OF LIVING, 1918

INCREASE IN THE COST OF LIVING

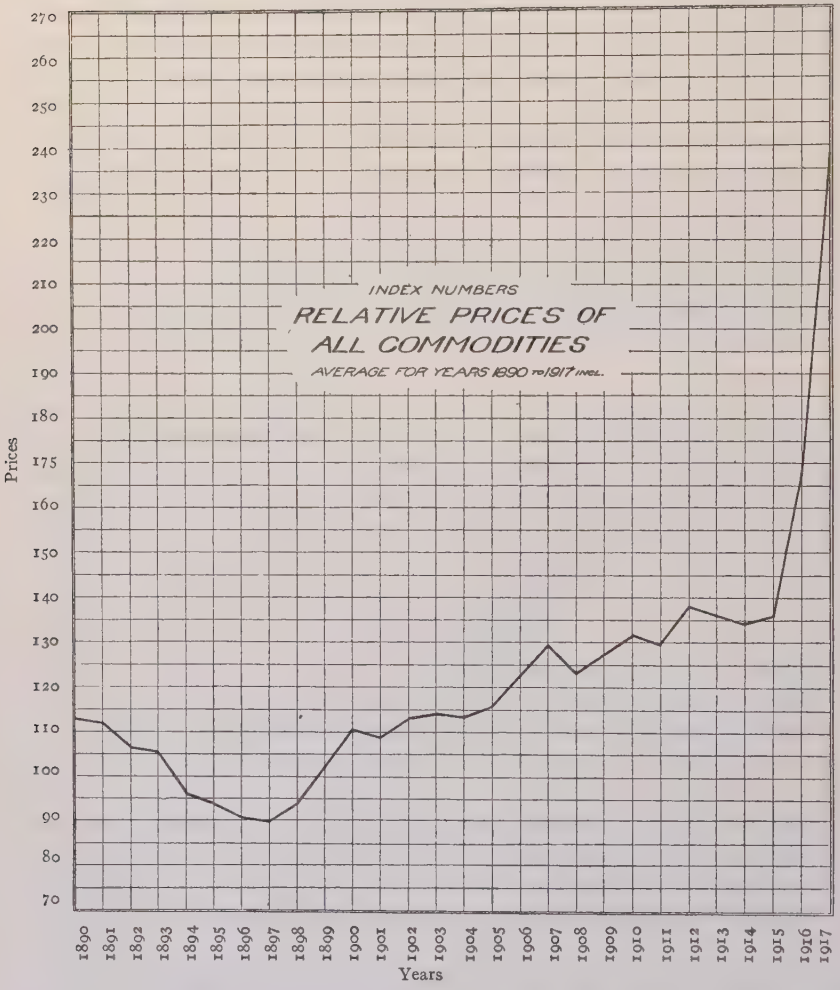
In 1913 the Committee of the National Education Association on Teachers' Salaries, Tenure, and Pensions publisht an extended report which subsequently has been widely circulated and effectively used thruout the country. The last year for which figures were obtainable at the time of the completion of this report was 1911. From the latter year until near the end of 1915 there was a slow upward movement of prices, both wholesale and retail, in the United States. So gradual was this movement, however, that it did not justify any large revision of the conclusions reached in the report of 1913. During the years 1916 and 1917, however, there has occurred an extremely rapid rise of prices, a rise so great and so sudden that it makes imperative a new and thorogoing study of the whole situation as it affects the teachers of the country.

The skyrocketing of prices which we are now experiencing is graphically presented in Chart I,[1] herewith, which shows the movement in the wholesale market of the United States from 1890 to 1917 inclusive. From 1890 to 1897 prices declined. Between the latter low-level year and 1911, the last year for which figures were available when our earlier report was prepared, there was an increase of 44.1 per cent in wholesale prices. The year 1912 showed an increase of 6.5 per cent over 1911, but during the years 1913 and 1914 wholesale prices actually declined slightly. For 1915 they were still slightly lower than for 1912. But the two succeeding years show an upward rush that dwarfs all movements recorded during the whole period of twenty-seven years. To illustrate: From 1897, the year of lowest prices, to 1915, wholesale prices advanst 51.6 per cent, an average of less than 3 per cent a year. During the two years from 1915 to 1917 alone they advanst 42.8 per cent, an average of 21.4 per cent a year. To put the matter in another way, the upward movement of prices has been more

[1] This chart brings down to date the diagram presented on p. 5, National Education Association Repo on Salaries and Cost of Living, 1913.

than seven times as rapid during the last two years as it was during the preceding eighteen years of increasing wholesale quotations. The fact may seem astounding, but it is none the less true that wholesale prices in the United States were more than two and one-half times, exactly 2.65, higher in 1917 than they were twenty years earlier.

CHART I

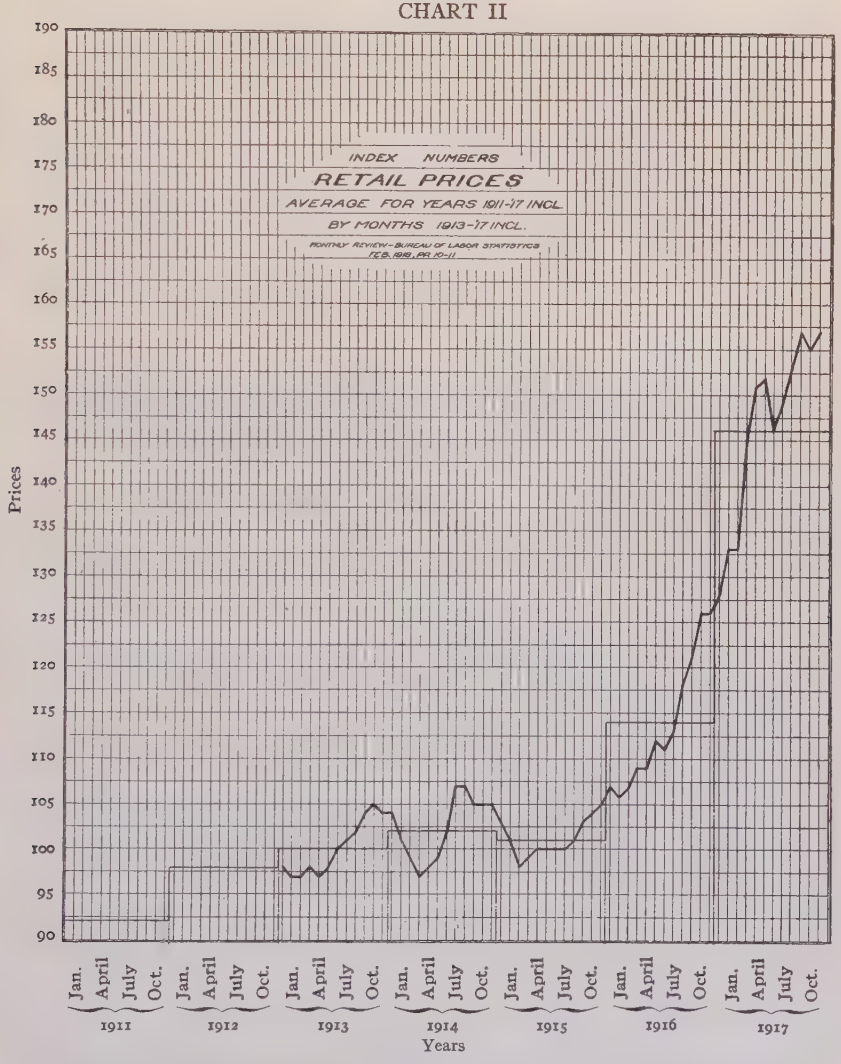


From the point of view of the teacher the significance of these figures is unmistakable. Taking the country as a whole, strenuous efforts were necessary to keep salaries advancing as rapidly as prices during the period of comparatively slow upward movement. Not always indeed was the advance of income kept even with the necessary increase of expenditure. But to meet an upward rush so rapid as that from the beginning of 1916 on, it is manifest that almost superhuman efforts must be put forth. It was

hard to climb to the summit of the Pelion of high prices reacht in the years 1911 to 1915. Now suddenly Ossa has been heapt upon Pelion, and the teachers of the country must begin a vastly more difficult climb.

Some further analysis of the developments of the last two years is necessary. First, it may be noted that figures dealing with retail prices confirm

CHART II

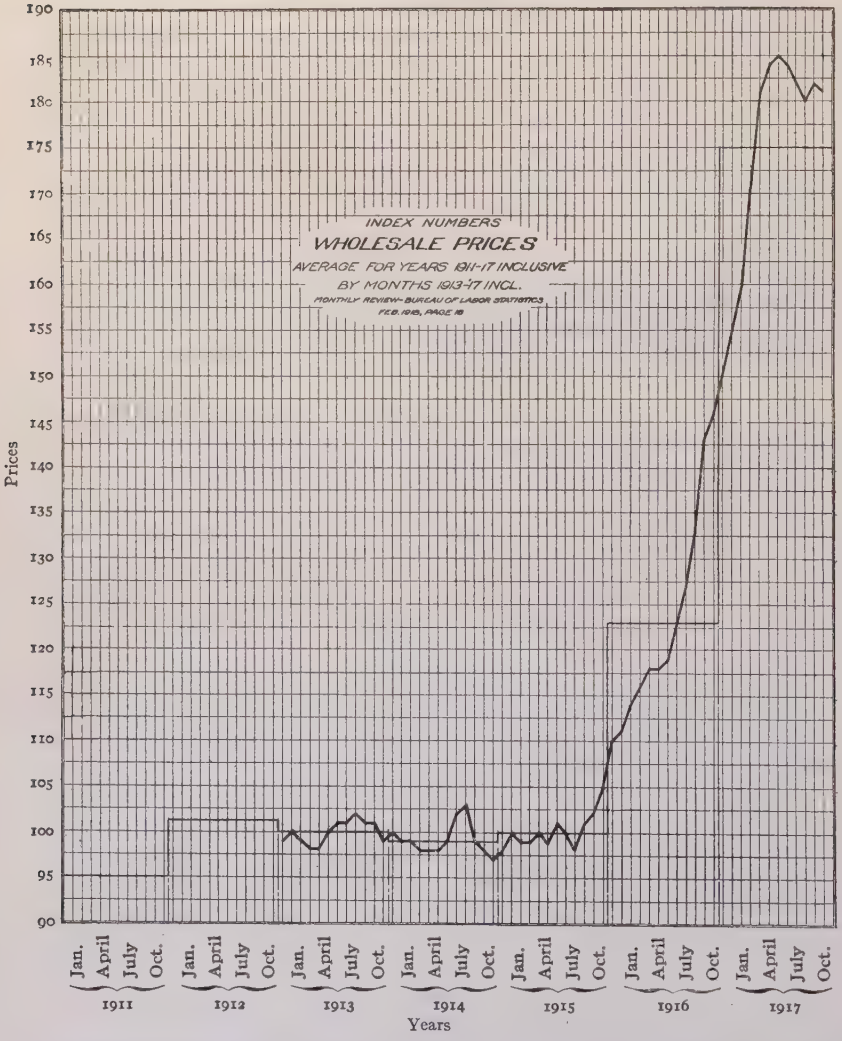


the observations made with regard to wholesale prices during this period. Thus in the case of the retail prices of twenty-two principal articles of food, the general level for December, 1917, as shown by the figures of the United States Bureau of Labor,[1] is 50 per cent higher than for December, 1915.

[1] These statements are based upon figures presented by the monthly review, February, 1918, of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor, (see Chart II). The March number of this review shows that on January 15, 1918, the retail price of food had made a further increase above the level for December 15, 1917, of 2 per cent.

Chart III shows in detail the movement of wholesale prices by months from January, 1913, to December, 1917. The figures upon which it is based cover 296 commodities of all kinds, including farm products, food, cloths and clothing, fuel and lighting, metals and metal products, lumber

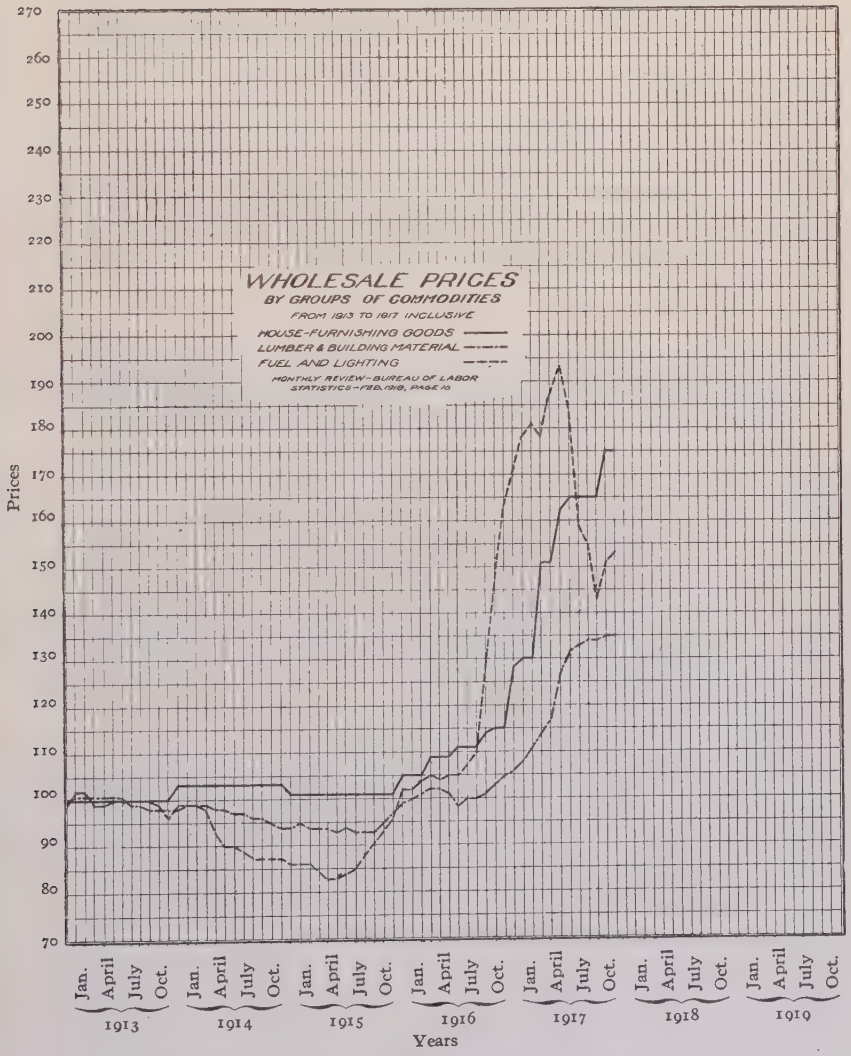
CHART III



and building materials, drugs and chemicals, house-furnishing goods, and miscellaneous articles. An increase of the cost of such basic materials must of course be reflected in the retail prices of all commodities derived from them. The general level of wholesale prices is shown by these figures of the Bureau of Labor to be not less than 72 per cent higher in December, 1917, than in December, 1915.

"This increase (of wholesale prices) has been particularly great," according to the Bureau of Labor, "among farm products, foods, clothing, metal products, drugs, and chemicals"—all articles, with the exception of metal products, which enter largely into the teacher's budget. Some of

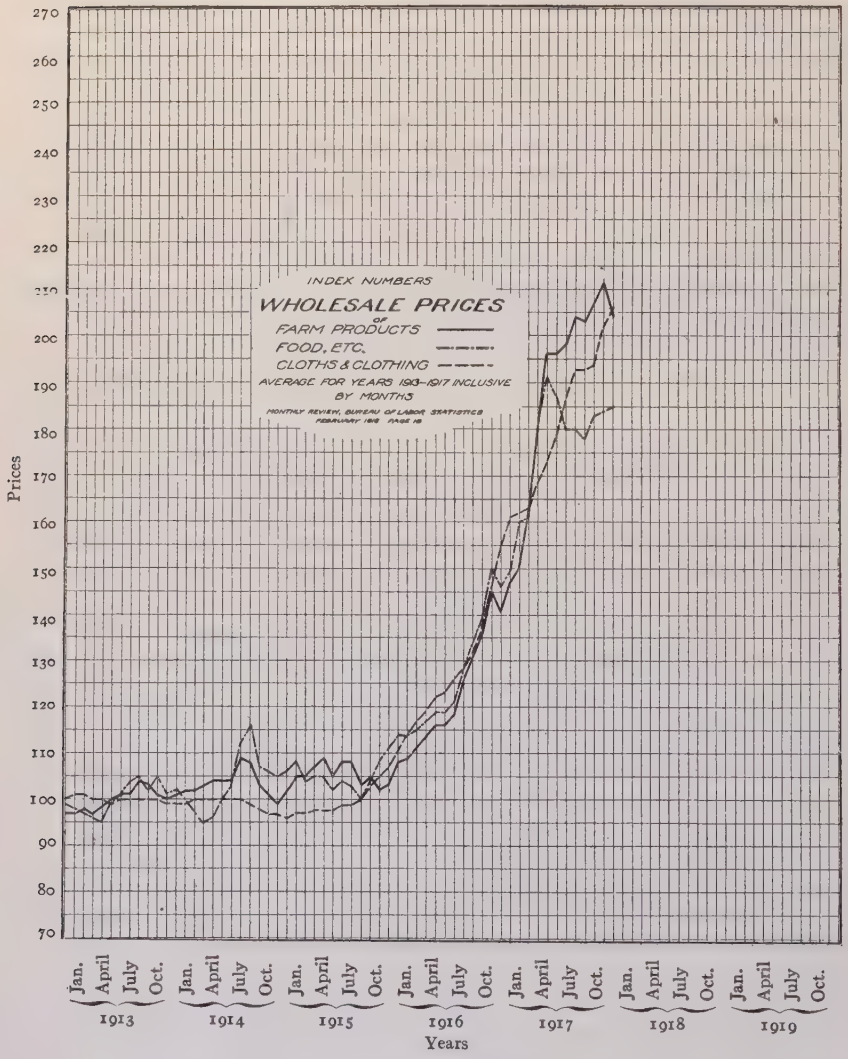
CHART IV



the details of the movements of wholesale prices by special groups of commodities are shown in Charts IV and V. Thus from December, 1915, to December, 1917, lumber and building materials advanst 39.1 per cent, fuel and lighting 59.3 per cent, food 66.6 per cent, house furnishings 73.2 per cent, cloths and clothing 92.5 per cent, and farm products, 98.1 per cent.

It is a matter of common knowledge that there has been no recession of prices in the few months which have elapst since December, 1917, and this popular impression is confirmed by Bradstreet's index numbers, which are obtainable for a more recent date than the figures furnished by the govern-

CHART V



ment. Bradstreet's figures are based upon ninety-six different commodities, including many kinds of food products, thirteen metals, eleven chemicals and drugs, seven building materials, and numerous other articles. For December, 1917, this authority quoted an index number of 17.5962. On May 1, 1918, it had advanst to 18.9133. This means a price increase of very nearly $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent within a period of five months.

With the continuance of the war, in all probability new higher levels will be recorded. Further increases as rapid as those of 1916 and 1917 are by no means impossible. Even after the termination of the war it is probable that prices will remain high during the subsequent years of readjustment and reconstruction. For an indefinitely long period, perhaps from fifty to one hundred years, the payment of interest and sinking-fund charges on war debts will continue to exert an effect upon the level of world-prices.

There is consequently slight ground, if any, for the expectation that prices may decline as rapidly as they have advanst during the last two years. On the contrary, every circumstance indicates that they will continue to increase indefinitely and remain fixt at a high level for a considerable period thereafter. Teachers and others with fixt incomes must deal with the situation from this point of view, or else prepare to suffer a further reduction of real wages, i.e., purchasing power of salary, in addition to the severe losses already inflicted upon them by the price movements of the last two years.

WIDENING OPPORTUNITIES FOR EMPLOYMENT

Coincident with the rapid increase in wholesale and retail prices in 1916 and 1917 has occurred a tremendous expansion of the demand for the services not only of men but of women as well. Men have volunteered and have been drafted by the hundreds of thousands for our new Army and Navy. Back of those in the fighting line such directly auxiliary industries as shipbuilding, transportation, and the innumerable branches of munitions production have absorbed a large part of the labor force of the country. For the latter purposes, shipbuilding, transportation, and munitions production, the supply of men has not been adequate. At least industries of this character are making vigorous and systematic efforts to enlist women as workers. More recently agriculture has begun to bid, almost frantically, for the services of women.

Upon the teaching profession the effects of higher prices and wider opportunities for employment have been complementary and cumulative. Of course the results are more markt in industrial than in agricultural districts, but they are apparent to a considerable degree the country over. Higher prices prevail generally, even if wider opportunities for employment are more or less localized. Fairly well-defined cases in which teachers have been forst out of the schools by sheer inability to meet the increasing cost of living are of common occurrence. Far more numerous, however, are the cases in which the lure of high wages in industrial undertakings, with the hope of future rapid increases, has led teachers to give up their profession.

As tangible illustrations the following cases may be cited from a city which had a population of 38,537 in 1910, and whi h, as a consequence of its rapid industrial development, particularly along the lines of ship-

building and the manufacture of munitions, now claims from 60,000 to 75,000 or more. The city referred to is in the center of the Philadelphia shipbuilding district. An investigation of this district just made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in cooperation with the Shipbuilding Wage Adjustment Board and the Emergency Fleet Corporation shows that expenditures per family for clothing showed an increase in 1917 of 51.33 per cent over 1914; expenditures for furniture and furnishings an increase of 49.84 per cent, for food of 54.41 per cent, for housing of 2.60[1] per cent, for fuel and light of 21.54 per cent, for miscellaneous purposes of 43.81 per cent. For the whole 512 families studied, expenditures in 1917 showed an increase of 43.81 per cent over those for 1914. It is from a community of this character, with a rapidly increasing population and with industrial wages also rising rapidly, that the following actual cases have been taken.

A fifth-grade woman teacher, of ten years' experience, salary $682.50 a year ($65.00 per month, 10½ months a year), accepted a clerical position in a shipbuilding establishment at $1144.00 a year ($22.00 per week, 52 weeks a year).

A special teacher of drawing in intermediate grades, at a salary of $682.50 per year ($65.00 per month, 10½ months a year), accepted a clerical position, taking charge of pay-rolls, in a shipbuilding establishment at a salary of $900.00 per year ($75.00 per month, 12 months a year). This teacher, a woman of thirty-seven years of age, had taught successfully for fifteen years. Her only preparation for a business career was a brief course which she had once taken in a business school and two summers spent as bookkeeper at a summer hotel. Nevertheless her services were welcomed by the shipbuilding company and an increase was promist beyond her initial salary of $900.00.

A drawing supervisor, woman, of nine years' experience, salary $1050.00 per year ($100.00 per month, 10½ months per year), accepted a position with a large chemical concern at a salary of $1250.00 per year, with a further increase of $200.00 per year promist.

A woman teacher in the grades, thirty-four years old, of ten years' experience, salary $577.50 ($55.00 per month, 10½ months per year), had taught in a school in the Italian section of the city where she had given most useful service and was greatly beloved by the children and parents. She possest the qualifications not only of a teacher but of a social worker as well. Fond of her profession, she attended summer session in normal school at her own expense for two years to secure a higher certificate. Altho anxious to continue teaching she *found it impossible to maintain a standard of living* under stress of the higher prices of 1916 and 1917. Very reluctantly she accepted a position in the office of a shipbuilding concern, at a salary of

[1] The small percentage of increase for housing is probably due to the fact that these families have resided in the district studied for some time. As old tenants their rents have not been raised so rapidly as in the case of newcomers. Certainly it is true that rentals of many properties in this city have advanst 50 to 100 per cent since 1914.

$1040.00 a year. She found readjustment to new duties less difficult than she had anticipated, and she is under no such strain or responsibility in her new work as in the schoolroom of a crowded foreign section of the city.[1]

In addition to the demands of shipbuilding and munition making, the teachers of the city referred to above have recently received a blank form, sent out by one of the largest railroad corporations in the country, inquiring into any qualifications they may possess for any form of railroad work and requesting them to register for possible future employment. One interesting question propounded in the inquiry blank is, "If satisfied, will you remain in the service of the company?"

To meet the probable resignation of experienst teachers in this community and in others similarly circumstanst, it was proposed at the superintendents' convention recently held in Atlantic City that girls who have just graduated from high school might be employed, in case they could spend a summer in pedagogical preparation. After meeting the expense thus entailed those able and willing to do so might receive appointments at $45.00 per month, payable 10½ months annually.[2] Considering that in this community there is eager competition among a number of large industrial concerns for the services of unskilled women workers at wages of from $15.00 to $18.00 per week, and that girl munition workers of slight experience may easily earn $20.00 per week on a piecework basis, it does not seem likely that there will be any great demand, even by scantily prepared high-school graduates, for teaching positions. In rural communities, doubtless, this kind of teaching material would be more largely available.

In this connection a story recently circulated regarding the attitude of a publishing house engaged largely in the textbook business shows what may be expected in the near future. A representative of this publishing firm, delegated especially to visit college and university professors and ascertain what texts they were producing or could be induced to write, was recently met with the query, "What sort of books does your firm want?" To this the agent of the publishing house replied:

> We are not in the slightest doubt as to what kind of textbooks we want for the near future. We want the most elementary treatises that can be written. We want A-B-C books. Books that presuppose a minimum of intelligence on the part of the teachers. Books that will teach themselves. In short, fool-proof books. And we want this kind of textbook because we realize that with present prices and present salaries we are going to have to deal with just that type of teacher for the next ten or fifteen years.

The same problem, from a wholly different angle, is suggested by the story of a high-school girl who was encouraged by her aunt to continue her education in college so as to prepare for teaching. The aunt had been teaching some twenty years and was getting only about $500 a year as a

[1] The cases of individual teachers cited above were supplied by Miss Lillian Dannaker, supervising principal, Chester Schools, Larkin School Building.

[2] In Pennsylvania the minimum state salary for provisional certificate is $45.00.

salary. The young high-school girl replied to her aunt, "Why should I go to college to prepare to be a teacher when I can get right now by working in a mill more than you are making when you have been teaching for twenty years?" The high-school girl might have added that she could get employment the year around in a mill and could get employment for only eight or nine months in school teaching. The superintendent of schools at Benld, Ill., reports that he excuses two or three boys in the grades at three o'clock every day to work on the "second shift" at the mines. They work from 3.30 to 11.30 P.M., make $3 to $5, and attend school also. Mr. Elmer Coatney, a teacher in the Benld Township High School, recently urged a boy who had left school to work at the mine to return to school. He endeavored to convince the boy of the need and value of an education. But the boy replied, "Mr. Coatney, I am making more money without an education than you are making with one." This is the truth, although Mr. Coatney is paid $100 a month, which is more than the average wages of high-school teachers in that locality.

Remember that these districts are doing the best they can under the present legal limitations on the tax rate.

As a result of the increast demand for their services a spirit of unrest, entirely natural under the circumstances, has taken possession of the teaching staff of many cities. There is a widespread inclination to try out the opportunities for industrial employment during the coming summer. Those who find the change advantageous will resign within the time limit fixed in their contracts toward the end of the coming vacation. Not until schools reopen in the fall of this year, therefore, will the full extent of the industrial draft be apparent.

Only a part of those who experiment with industrial employment will abandon the profession of teaching. A comparison of the advantages and disadvantages of the two methods of earning a livelihood may throw some light on the probable number of resignations from the teaching staffs of industrial centers. In most business establishments the hours of work are from 8:00 A.M. to 5:00 P.M., with one hour for lunch. The hours which the teacher is required to spend in the classroom are indeed much shorter, but when one counts in the additional duties performed by a teacher out of hours—such as preparing lessons, grading papers, and meeting the innumerable professional demands, direct and indirect,[1] upon her time—the advantage which she enjoys in this respect is comparatively slight. Moreover, it is generally admitted that the nervous strain and burden of responsibility carried by the industrial worker of corresponding salary are much lighter. Of course the teacher's vacation periods are considerably longer than those which are customary in industry. However, industrial employes are sometimes given full pay for the customary two weeks allowed during the

[1] See "The Teacher's Working Day," *Report of the Committee on Teachers' Salaries and Cost of Living*, pp. 138–56. Publisht by the National Education Association in 1913.

summer. True, the teacher has two months or so of summer vacation, but without pay, and if dependent wholly on her own resources she sometimes finds it difficult to meet current expenditures during this period. Moreover, required professional training in summer schools, normal schools, etc., makes considerable inroads into the apparently long vacation she enjoys.

Much is made, perhaps too much, of the alleged better social position enjoyed by the teacher as compared with the industrial employe. However, a better social position without the means of maintaining the standard of living associated therewith in the public mind becomes a burden rather than an advantage. Often it leads to pitiful little economies, unworthy shifts and devices that harm one's health, lame one's self-esteem, and reveal themselves to the scornful laughter of the prosperous and unfeeling.

Much has been made also of the greater social service rendered by the teacher. It is a thoroly justifiable appeal, perhaps the highest that can be made to those qualified for the duties of our profession, and in response to this appeal such heroines of real life as Deborah of Ernest Poole's *His Family* will continue to give themselves to the care of their big school families. But this is no longer the age of asceticism. Nor is there any necessary logical connection between the call of social service and poverty. Finally it must be emphasized that at the present time and so long as the war shall last many industries may make a direct and energetic appeal to the patriotism of their workers, just as the teaching profession has always done. This is preeminently true of farming, shipbuilding, and the many branches of munitions making. The former advantage which teaching enjoyed in its broad appeal for patriotic and social service is therefore shared for the time being by many industries which are competing for the services of teachers.

Finally, when it comes to a comparison of tangible rewards all the advantages are on the side of industrial work. The latter usually offers a substantial increase at the beginning over the salary of the teacher. It may not offer such security of tenure as teaching, but for an indefinitely long period in the future industry as a whole is likely to expand. Besides larger initial salaries, promotions in industrial employment are likely to come more frequently, and when they do come they usually bring with them much more substantial increases of salary than those promist by the average schedule of teachers' salaries, with its theoretically admirable but personally somewhat invidious groups, grading, experience, and efficiency ratings. At a time like the present, with new higher price levels recorded from day to day, the likelihood of occasional substantial raises of pay possesses an appeal much stronger than during periods of stable prices. All things considered, therefore, industrial employers are in a position to make a much stronger bid for the services of teachers than ever before. And the economic qualities of teachers are precisely such as to make them especially desirable employés.

They possess a greater share of native intelligence than most applicants for such positions; their education is considerably better; they do not expect to maintain excessively high standards of living and consequently are satisfied with moderate salaries; and finally they are thoroly dependable workers, capable of accepting heavy responsibilities and trained to stick to a job until it is completed. In the light of these admirable industrial qualities it is not strange that various kinds of business have begun to seek recruits for their working forces from the ranks of school teachers.

THE QUESTION OF METHOD

The two factors already considered, rapidly increasing prices and widened opportunities for employment, have brought about an acute economic crisis so far as teachers are concerned. They are inexorably forcing out some teachers, while many others are being attracted into business enterprises by the lure of new industrial opportunities.

Under the stress of these economic forces the question of the unionization of teachers has naturally come into prominence; indeed, such a movement for the union of teachers in affiliation with the American Federation of Labor has recently been making rapid progress. Nowhere is this more apparent than in the city of Washington. In Washington teachers have been drafted from the schools into many branches of the civil service by the simple process of taking civil service examinations. Teachers whose minimum salary is $500 are metamorphosed into government clerks at a salary of $1200. The result, not unnaturally, has been a demand for a large increase of teachers' salaries, say from the minimum of $500 to $1000. This demand has been presented very ably and effectively by the unions of school teachers in Washington, and they have organized in its behalf a very effective and sympathetic propaganda.

The movement has spread rapidly. Of recent date, a roster of local unions includes the names of twenty-four such bodies. Not only large cities such as New York, Chicago, and Washington are represented, but also cities of the second class such as Chattanooga, Scranton, Schenectady, Gary, Valparaiso, Norfolk, Va., and Vallejo, Calif. The literature of the unionist organizations is conservative in tone. One need not be disturbed by the fear that they will resort to undignified and violent measures. Unions formed of American teachers may be depended upon to pursue a wise, patient, and purely democratic policy. Moreover, what the teachers of the country are asking of the people—their ultimate employers—is not askt in selfishness but in the widest interest of the people themselves. Public schools are the chief bulwark of liberty. If the teachers of the country are ruined economically the schools will fail and democracy itself will be mperiled.

The economic crisis which confronts teachers now is so great and so immediate that it seems altogether unlikely that the advocacy of higher

salaries for teachers is likely to be overdone in the near future. It is true that agitation for wage increases during war times should be made only after due deliberation and on the most compelling grounds. But it is certain that the teachers of the country are justified in taking such action at the present time. Nor is there the least likelihood that such increases as they may secure will be unduly high. In no sense will teachers become war profiteers. On the contrary the strongest cooperation of all effective means for the raising of salaries will hardly avail to secure adequate results even to the extent of restoring to them the purchasing power which they possest in 1915.

While many of us are strongly inclined to favor agitation within strictly professional lines rather than along the lines associated with the labor movement, we must recognize, however, that in certain communities the union method may be the better method. At least we must be prepared to welcome the cooperation of the new method in every feasible way. The National Education Association should therefore make special study of the progress of unionism among teachers, the methods employed, and the possibilities of cooperation therewith, and publish a report on these topics for the guidance of its members and teachers everywhere in dealing with this new form of organization. Manifestly in those communities where teachers' unions are formed such unions are likely to become very effective centers for propaganda in favor of higher salaries for teachers. Merely by cooperating with the unions along statistical lines the National Education Association should be able to render valuable service without unnecessarily indorsing all the methods which the unions may decide to use in furthering their own interests.

At the present moment the three great material issues confronting teachers, namely, salaries, tenure, and pensions, have shifted largely in importance, as compared with the year 1914. Of the three, salaries are much the most important and are likely to remain so for an indefinitely long time. As for tenure, instead of teachers worrying about that subject, it is the school boards and superintendents of the country who have to worry lest they may not be able to retain their teaching staffs. With teachers leaving in large numbers for industrial and other employment, pensions cease to be of any great interest for the time being. The situation is a difficult one. Only by boldly and resourcefully standing out as leader of the teaching profession in this emergency can the National Education Association justify its existence and guarantee its future. Indeed it is only by such a policy, pushed sufficiently to secure large advances of salary, that the National Education Association can hold teachers to the professional point of view and to professional methods of taking action n their own interest and the interest of the community. Otherwise unionism will dominate the situation, as indeed it should if it proves the only means to rescue the teaching profession from economic deterioration. For it

must be rescued from the impending bankruptcy if it is to continue to perform the great, aye, the indispensable, function which has been intrusted to it by the democracy of America.

HOW IS THE MONEY TO BE OBTAINED TO PAY ADEQUATE SALARIES TO TEACHERS?

I

How is the money to be obtained to pay adequate salaries to teachers? The 1913 report of the Committee of the National Education Association on Teachers' Salaries and Cost of Living proved in detail, what many would have been willing to admit without asking for figures, that even before the war the teachers of the country were inadequately paid. But the war, as the preceding section of the present report amply demonstrates, has turned a situation that was bad into one that is critical. Something immediate and radical must be done or there is danger of educational collapse.

School officials, as a rule, recognize this danger and are willing enough to pay better salaries to teachers. But their pertinent question is, "Where is the money to come from?" This is a practical problem that must be answered in a practical way. Before taking it up it is desirable to know how much money will be required, first, to meet the needs of our existing school system in the present emergency; secondly, to extend the scope of public education to meet twentieth-century demands; and, thirdly, to pay adequate salaries to the teachers. It is necessary also to know what has already been done toward obtaining the necessary funds.

In order that the committee might have up-to-date information concerning what has been done, and opinions from all over the country as to what should be done, the following questions were sent to each state superintendent.

1. About what percentage of increase of teachers' salaries, including supervisors and city, town, and county superintendents, is necessary to meet present war conditions:
   a) Elementary and rural teachers?
   b) Other persons engaged in public-school work?
2. Approximate amount expended for salaries in your state according to last report:
   a) Raised by local taxation.
   b) Appropriated by the state.
3. Are the laws of your state such that local communities can levy and collect sufficient funds to pay adequate salaries to teachers:
   a) In rural communities?
   b) In towns and smaller cities?
   c) In large cities?
4. Are there adequate funds available for additional state support?
5. State briefly the means that are being taken in your state to secure adequate funds for teachers' salaries to meet the present emergency.
6. Do you favor national aid to the different states?

(A bill is being prepared by the National Education Association Commission providing for the appropriation by Congress of $100,000,000.00 for this purpose.)

Replies have been received from more than half of the state superintendents representing every section, and their answers have been tabulated in brief form (see Appendixes I and II).

If we consider the answers to the first question, we find that in order to meet war conditions it is necessary, in the opinion of the state superintendents, to increase the salaries of elementary and rural teachers from 10 to 50 per cent and those of high-school teachers, supervisors, town, city, and county superintendents from 10 to 50 per cent. If a rough average is taken, the state superintendents recommend that elementary and rural teachers should have their salaries increast about 33 per cent and all others about 20 per cent. According to the publisht statistics (1914–15) the aggregate amount expended for teachers' salaries in the United States was $345,006,445.[1] Therefore, according to the estimate of the state superintendents, it will require from $100,000,000 to $115,000,000 to meet the present emergency on account of the rapid increase in the cost of living.

But there is another and a better way of approximating the amount of money required to meet the war emergency. On April 30, 1918, the Railroad Wage Commission of the United States made a report to the Director General of Railroads relative to the wages of railroad employés and the cost of living. "We have had a most exhaustive study made of the cost of living today," says the Commission, "as contrasted with the cost of living in the latter part 1915. . . . . To our mind it conclusively establishes two things: (1) that the cost of living has increast disproportionately among those of small incomes, and (2) that there is a point up to which it is essential that the full increast cost shall be allowed as a wage increase, while from this point on the increase may be gradually diminished."[2] As a result of this study the commission made a table setting forth the rate of increase of all wages up to $250 per month, the "vanishing-point" so far as increases are concerned. This table provided the following:[3]

Monthly Wages	Percentage of Increase
Under $ 46	103 –44*
$ 46– 79	43 –41
80– 100	40.44–31.75
100– 200	31.29– 8.375
200– 250	8.26–0

* The increase was $20 per month.

Applying these schedules to the salaries of teachers and changing monthly wages into yearly salaries, we have calculated the increases which it would be necessary to make in order that the financial condition of the teachers in 1918 might be as good as it was in 1915. *The amount is $166,094,211,*

[1] *Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1917*, II, 54. The aggregate salaries for 1915 are taken instead of those for 1916 ($364,789,265, on p. 81 of the same report) because the percentage of increase in wages of railroad employes is calculated on the 1915 basis by the Railroad Wage Commission. See *Report of Railroad Wage Commission to the Director General of Railroads*, Washington, 1918.

[2] See *Report of the Railroad Wage Commission for 1918*, p. 15. [3] *Ibid.*, pp. 20–26.

or an increase of 45.3 per cent. See Appendix III for detailed statement by states.

But what about the extension of the public school system? What amount of money will be needed to bring our education up to the level of twentieth-century demands?

There is space here to enumerate only a few of the most pressing of the educational questions with which we are face to face. Our foreign-born population must be Americanized. The widespread prevalence of illiteracy must be reduced to a minimum. Industrial education, in which we have as yet made scarcely a beginning, must be extended; our entire industrial future is contingent on it. An adequate system of physical education must be establisht and developt; the health and vigor of our people, perhaps the very endurance of the Republic, depend upon it. The school term in a majority of the states must be lengthened. Better attendance laws must be enacted, and more effectively enforst. This last point is a matter of prime importance, the fact being that, altho the average school term in 1916 was eight months (160.3 days), yet the average daily attendance of all of the pupils enrolled was only six months (120.9 days). There were sixteen states in which the average attendance was less than five months and one in which it was only 72.9 days.[1]

The matter of illiteracy deserves a special word owing to conditions recently revealed in a letter of Secretary Lane addrest to the President of the United States and to the chairmen of the educational committees of the House and Senate. The letter states:

> "The war has brought facts to our attention which are almost unbelievable and that are in themselves accusatory. There were in the United States in 1910, 5,516,163 persons over ten years of age who were unable to read or write in any language. There are now nearly 700,000 men of draft age in the United States who cannot read or write in English or any other language. Over 4,600,000 of the illiterates of this country were twenty years of age or more. . . . . The percentage of illiterates varies from 1.7 in Iowa to 29 in Louisiana. In the first draft between 30,000 and 40,000 illiterates were brought into the army, and approximately as many more near illiterates.
>
> They cannot sign their names.
> They cannot read their orders posted daily.
> They cannot read their manual of arms.
> They cannot read their letters or write home.
> They cannot understand the signals or follow the signal corps in time of battle."

The urgent necessity for reducing illiteracy is further emphasized by the fact that the *number of illiterates* actually increast in *sixteen states* from 1900 to 1910. These states are all in the North and West and comprise several of the greatest states in the Union—New York 27.6 per cent, Pennsylvania 18.3 per cent, Illinois 6.5 per cent, Massachusetts 5.6 per cent, New Jersey 31.0 per cent, Connecticut 24.9 per cent, California 27.0 per cent, and the *state of Washington 44.7 per cent.* Altho the South still

[1] See *Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1917*, II, 75.

has a very high per centage of illiteracy, yet the density of illiterate population in the great manufacturing states of the North exceeds that of the states in the Black Belt of the South. The former has 9.8 illiterate persons to the square mile, the latter 7.1 to the square mile.[1]

The bare enumeration of these facts shows that the scope of education must be greatly extended. What will it cost? No one knows. Perhaps $75,000,000 a year, perhaps more. But it must be done, cost what it may.

So far we have considered only what amounts of money are necessary to meet the war emergency due to the high cost of living and to extend the necessary scope of education. To rescue the profession of teaching from bankruptcy will require $330,000,000 to $400,000,000 in addition to the amounts named above. Few persons have ever taken the pains to study the financial condition of the public-school teachers of the United States. No one has ever made an exhaustive study of the distribution of salaries, but until such a study is made, it is impossible to present the facts in their true light. The best we have are averages, and we use those for 1914–15. But the mere statement of these averages is pathetically eloquent.

The average salary for all of the 622,321 public-school teachers in 1915 was $543.31.

That is, $1.73 per working day thruout the year.

That is, $1.48 per living day thruout the year.

There was not a single state in the Union in which the average salary of the teachers was $1000.

There were only two states, California and New York, in which the average salary of the teachers exceeded $900.

There were only three other states, Washington, New Jersey, and Massachusetts, in which the average salary of the teachers was between $800 and $900.

There were only three other states, Nevada, Arizona, and Rhode Island, in which the average salary of the teachers of each was between $700 and $800.

But that is not all of the story.

There were twenty-nine states in which the average salary of the teachers was *below* the average for the United States.

There were twenty-three states in which the average salary was below $500.

There were twelve states in which the average salary was below $400.

There were three states in which the average salary was below $300.

There was one state in which the average daily wage was 64 cents!

If these are averages of all teachers, including principals and superintendents, what must be the economic condition of more than 350,000 of the poorest-paid teachers of the United States![2]

But the foregoing statistics represented conditions in 1915. What are the present conditions relative to the salaries of teachers?

For the most part we do not know. The most roseate optimist we have heard of says that salaries have advanst 10 per cent within the last three

[1] For charts and tables relative to illiteracy see Appendixes IV and V.

[2] These statements are based on the table of statistics found on p. 50, Vol. II, of the *Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1917*. For detailed statement by states see Appendix III.

years. If that is true, the average daily wage of the teachers in the United States is now $1.63 instead of $1.48.[1]

But we do know something definite about the present salaries of the élite of our profession, the salaries of the teachers in 320 cities of the United States. These data have been collected within the last sixty days by the National Education Association Commission on the National Emergency. These data have been collected in such a manner as to show the number of teachers receiving salaries of different amounts. The actual facts are these:

The median salary for 59,020 elementary teachers in the city schools is $816.19.

The median salary for 3779 intermediate teachers in the city schools is $899.42.

The median salary for 13,976 high-school teachers in the city schools is $1249.50.

There are 19,017 teachers, including 338 high-school teachers, in the city schools who receive less than $700 per year.

There are 2931, including 33 high-school teachers in the city schools, who receive less than $500 per year.[2]

While we do not know the worst conditions relative to teachers' salaries, yet this study shows the actual condition of the *best-paid group of teachers in the United States* to be bordering on bankruptcy.

But what *was* a living salary in 1915? What is a living salary in 1918? Here again we must rely on the Railroad Wage Commission, which says:

This study of the cost of living was not made from paper statistics exclusively, by the gathering of prices, and comparison of theoretical budgets. It was in no inconsiderable part an actual study from life. . . . . Roughly, it may be said that the man who received $85 a month on January 1, 1916, now needs 40 per cent additional to his wage to give him the same living that he had then. Below that wage a larger percentage must be allowed, because the opportunity for substitution and other methods of thrift decline almost to the vanishing-point, while above that wage a growing proportion of the increase will go to those things essential to cultured life but not essential to actual living.[3]

WHAT CONSTITUTES A MINIMUM WAGE AND A FAIR WAGE FOR TEACHERS?

Estimates have been made by charity workers and others of the amount of earnings needed to keep a family above the pauper or poverty line. In 1900, John Mitchell, of the United Mine Workers, stated that a minimum wage of $600 a year was necessary for a worker in the anthracite region. At about the same time the New York Bureau of Labor estimated $10 a week or $520 a year as an amount adequate for the necessities of a city workingman. Dr. E. T. Devine, Secretary of the Charity Organization Society of New York City, estimated $600 as the minimum. Another charity official of New York City considered $624 a minimum necessary for a family of five. About the same time the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics estimated $724 as a fair living wage for a family of five. These

[1] The average salary of all teachers in 1916 was $563.08, or an increase of 3.6 per cent (see *Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1917*, II, 77). The National Education Association Commission reports 23 cities, representing 10,340 teachers, which report no increase at all. See Appendix VI. The United States Commissioner of Education has forwarded to this committee data from 108 cities, showing that the increases have not been general. It is difficult to make estimates from such data. See Appendix VII. For conditions in Missouri see Appendix XI.

[2] For table giving distribution of salaries of teachers of 320 cities, see Appendix VIII.

[3] *Report of the Railroad Wage Commission*, p. 16.

estimates were all made for a period in which prices everywhere were materially lower than in 1915. Furthermore, they were not estimates of an ideal standard of comfort for workingmen but represented the amount which was considered necessary to keep the families of the individuals concerned without providing any surplus for luxuries or comforts.

NOTES ON WHAT CONSTITUTED A LIVING WAGE FOR TEACHERS IN THE YEARS 1915–18

While the *Report of the Railroad Wage Commission* does not attempt to say what sum represents a living wage for all the railroad men of the country, it does attempt to show how much of an increase in wages will be necessary in order to enable the members of the different wage groups to secure approximately the same returns in 1918 as in 1915. It is manifestly unfair to compare the earnings of the teachers of the country with the earnings of a heterogeneous group like the railroad employés of the United States. It would seem more appropriate to compare teacher's salaries with the returns of some one of the groups of railway workers, like that of the engineers, or conductors, or even of the brakemen. On page 18 of the report of the eight-hour commission, the statement is made that "the typical earnings of an eastern freight engineer was around $180 a month, and that of the eastern freight brakeman, $100 a month." According to the table found on the same page, typical earnings of freight brakemen in the southern and western section would be about the same as those in the eastern division. The skill required and the degree of intelligence necessary to become a railroad brakeman cannot compare with the skill and intelligence of a teacher; and a comparison of the earnings of the two classes is therefore, if unfair at all, unfair to the teacher. On the other hand the average wages of all the railway wage earners is not a good criterion since the majority of railroad employés are very low grade, unskilled labor like section hands, teamsters, and porters. Their pay being very low tends to bring down the average of all railroad employés, whereas those branches of the service which really require skill or brains are paid at very much higher rates. If the wages of a typical freight brakeman are around $100 a month is it unfair to assume that the typical teacher ought to receive at least $85 a month? If we assume that this was a fair salary in 1915 for the average teacher of the country his annual salary would have amounted to $1020 a year.

The man who received $85 per month, or $1020 per year in 1915, should, according to the report, have a 40 per cent increase, or $1428, in 1918.[1]

[1] The Railroad Commission made a study of the budgets of 265 families in different parts of the United States (p. 93):

15 families,	income of each less than $600, deficit	$ 2647.95
105 "	" " from $600 to $1000, deficit	9991.15
145 "	" " " $1000 to $2000, deficit	149.20
	Total deficit for 265 families	$12,788.20

This shows that the living wage for a family is not reacht until the income is well above $1000.

With all the demands made upon teachers, "cultural" as well as those for the "essentials of actual living," their increases in salaries should be as great as those or railroad employés. On this basis the teachers should have received in 1915, not $543, but $1020 a year, that is a total, not of $345,000,000, but of $648,000,000. On the same basis, according to the Railroad Commission, they should receive in 1918 an average of $1428, or a total of $907,000,000, in order that the average salary may be a living salary.

But cost what it may, teachers should receive not only a living wage but salaries sufficient to enable them to live respectably, to keep abreast of the times professionally, and to lay by something for old age. This is not only reasonable but necessary if the schools are to fulfil their mission. Your committee therefore submits for the indorsement of the National Education Association the following:

Tentative Program on Salaries

1. An immediate increase in the salaries of all teachers sufficient to meet the increase in the cost of living, these increases to be made on a sliding scale, that is, those receiving the lowest salaries to be given the largest percentage of increase.

2. A minimum salary for all teachers, rural and urban, which will unable them to support their families twelve months in the year.

3. A scale of increases in salary from time to time which will provide teachers with a reasonable assurance of a remuneration which will enable them to live appropriately without embarrassment, and which will also enable them to lay by something for old age. The compensation should be sufficient to warrant young men and young women of first-class ability to prepare themselves properly for teaching and to remain in the profession after they have once entered it.

4. After a reasonable probationary period and proper certification, tenure of position during efficiency, with a fair chance of advancement to positions of greater importance and emolument.

II

How can the funds be obtained to carry out such a program? Let us consider only three items:

Amount paid teachers in 1915	$345,000,000
Amount necessary, according to Railway Wage Commission, to meet increast cost of living in 1915	303,000,000
Additional amount, required to pay living salaries to teachers in 1918	259,000,000
Amount required to extend scope of education (near future)	75,000,000
Total	$982,000,000

If we study the replies of the state superintendents to questions 2 and 4, as given above (p. 22), we find that the money for teachers' salaries comes (1) from state support and (2) from local taxation; that there is no uniformity among the states as to which of these two parts should be the larger; that some states, like Kansas, give no state support whatever,

while others, like Pennsylvania, give millions.[1] We find, moreover, that almost without exception there are no additional state funds available for school support until there is further legislation.[2] This means that in most states there is for the ensuing school year but one way to raise the large sum of money needed for the immediate emergency, and that is by *local taxation.*

The answers to question 5, regarding the measures adopted to meet the present emergency, are set forth in Appendix II. They are worthy of careful study.

An examination of these answers makes it clear that with the exception of Delaware, Maryland, Maine, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and a few other states *nothing* has been done by the legislatures to meet present emergencies. In fact, only a few legislatures have been in session since war was declared. It is evident then that if funds are to be obtained at all for the next school year they must be raised in most states by local taxation. *But except in the wealthiest communities, to increase local taxation in one year sufficiently to raise enough money to increase teachers' salaries 45 per cent is an impossibility.* The reasons for this are two. In the first place, tax officials dare not raise the rate so much at a single bound. In the second place, legal restrictions in many states forbid the levying of such a tax rate. The answer "No" to question 3 shows the states where these legal obstacles exist. Salaries, in most places, will be increast more than usual this year, but anything approaching a general increase of 45 per cent is out of the question until there are radical changes in those state laws that at present bar the way.[3]

But even legislation by the different states will not provide sufficient funds to carry out the program as outlined above without imposing undue burdens of taxation on the people in many states.[4] The fact is that our present system of school support is breaking down in the present crisis and must give way to a new one. And the only new one in sight is the *system of national aid.* The adoption of this system will involve, not only legislation on the part of Congress, but an almost complete change of policy of public education on the part of the nation. To bring these changes about will require the compelling force of an aroused public opinion. Not a moment

[1] Pennsylvania gives $18,000,000.

[2] See Appendix I.

[3] The United States Commissioner of Education has just compiled statistics relative to the salary increases in 108 cities located in 27 different states. See Appendix VII. His report shows salary *schedules*, minimum and maximum, rather than *actual salaries paid*, yet even these schedules show that in many cities the increase is very small or that there is *none at all.* The Commission on National Emergency furnishes a list of 23 cities which report no increase at all (Appendix VI). Appendix IX, furnisht by Grace C. Forsythe, shows increases in teachers' salaries in certain cities; also increase in wages in certain industries.

[4] There is no sort of correlation between the wealth of a community and the number of children to be educated. This is true to a less degree in states than in school districts, yet in some states there is nearly six times as much wealth per teacher as in others, e.g., Nevada has $671,816.56 of taxable wealth for each teacher and North Carolina only $117,947.33, or approximately only one-sixth as much. For the average amount of wealth per teacher for each state, see Appendix X.

must be lost, therefore, in bringing this issue in the most forcible manner to the people's attention.[1]

Fortunately for the success of the proposed change the system of national support can be justified on other grounds than that of necessity in an emergency. Even if national aid were not in itself desirable, it would have been resorted to to save the situation. In the unanimous opinion of the committee, however, national aid *is* desirable and can be advocated, therefore, on the double basis of practical necessity and soundness of principle. In fact, a study of the history of the systems of school support in America abundantly proves that, however great the change in policy which the method of national aid seems to involve, it is entirely in harmony with the evolution of our public-school system, a natural next step in its development, a step which, if wisdom had prevailed, would have come in the near future even without the war. The briefest summary of the development in question will make this plain.

EVOLUTION OF THE SYSTEM OF SCHOOL SUPPORT

Historically considered, public-school support began with the levying of a local tax in the district to pay the tuition of indigent children. Then permission was granted by law, whereby the voters of a district might tax themselves to support a public school for all of the children of the district. Next the privilege was extended to the residents of a town or township. Then the taxing unit was enlarged so as to embrace a county, as in many parts of the South and West. And finally, in most of the states, a tax is now levied on the ratables of the state to aid in school support.[2]

The theory is that education is for citizenship and that citizenship is a concern of the state; that all of the taxable wealth of the state, therefore, should be taxt to educate all of the children of the state. Until now this is as far as the evolution has extended in practice except in reference to vocational education.

But primarily persons are citizens of the United States, but only secondarily of a state, and never of a community alone. When a foreigner takes his oath, it is to the United States that he swears allegiance. The nation first, the state second, demands military service and may require its citizens to lay down their lives to defend the nation, or to protect life and property in the state. The nation, as well as the state and the community, is interested in the education of its citizens. The very existence of the Republic depends on the intelligence and virtue of its citizens. The appalling facts concerning il iteracy and the dangers, of which the war makes us acutely

[1] "The local policy [of school support] is hopelessly obsolete because (1) it is unjust, (2) it is unreasonable, (3) it is impossible. Unjust because communities differ so widely in their ability to raise money; unreasonable because the burden of a state and nation is laid upon the town or city. Finally and most practically important, the adequate support of schools by local taxation has been wholly impossible."—Henry C. Morrison, State Superintendent of Connecticut, *Journal of Education* (April 25, 1918), p. 452.

[2] It does not follow that each state has past thru all these stages of evolution. Iowa and several other states depend almost entirely upon local taxation for school support.

aware, from our foreign-born population show that the nation will neglect the education of its citizens at its peril. It is the manifest duty of the n tion to see to it that proper systems of education are maintained in all parts of the Republic *and to help pay the bill.* This recognition should have been granted and this obligation assumed long ago. Our system of school support is breaking under the strain of the war. To save our education the next step in the evolution of this system must be taken.

But this step, so far as the nation is concerned, is not as great as it may at first seem to be. From the early history of the Republic until the present time Congress, in various ways, has encouraged public education and has rendered financial aid.

In 1785 Congress adopted an ordinance relating to the Northwest Territory providing for the reservation and sale of "lot numbered 16, of every township for the maintenance of public schools thruout the township."

In 1787 this ordinance was confirmed. This reservation and grant mark the commencement of a policy since uniformly observed.[1]

In 1803 Congress further provided that all states in the Mississippi Valley should share in the educational privileges of the ordinance of 1787.

In 1848 the grant of land was raised to two sections.

In 1896 Utah received four sections.[2]

In 1836 Congress provided for the distribution of the surplus revenue in the United States Treasury. Thirteen of the states devoted part or all of their quota to educational purposes.

In 1850 Congress granted to the several states the proceeds arising from the sale of certain swamp lands. Some of the states used this money to increase their school funds.[3]

In 1862 the first Norrill Act was past by Congress allotting to the different states 10,929,215 acres of land. The proceeds arising from the sale of these lands form a permanent fund. The interest from this fund goes to help support state agricultural colleges. In 1916 the income from this source was $916,151.

In 1890 the second Norrill Act was past, and in 1907 the Nelson Act was passed creating what is known as the Norrill-Ne son fund—$2,500,000 is paid annually from the United States Treasury in aid of colleges of agriculture and the mechanical arts.[4]

In 1917 the Smith-Hughes Act was past. This act provides a scheme of cooperation between the federal government and the states for the

[1] It was unfortunate that Congress did not specify that these lands should never pass out of the hands of the school authorities but should be held in perpetuity for the use of the public schools. In some localities it is difficult to find out what ever became of the funds obtained from sale of these lands. In Chicago there was a section of school land in the very heart of the city. Most of this land has been sold, or leased for ninety-nine years without revaluation. If these lands were still owned by the schools and properly managed, the income would be sufficient to pay the salaries of all teachers of the city.

[2] Cubberley, *School Funds and Their Apportionment*, p. 57. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1906.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 58.

[4] *Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1917*, II, 375.

promotion of vocational education in the fields of agriculture, trade, home economics, and industry.

Under this act the federal government does not propose to undertake the organization and immediate direction of vocational training in the states, but it does agree to make from year to year substantial financial contributions to its support. This cooperation of the states with the federal government is based on four fundamental ideas: first, that vocational education being essential to the national welfare, it is the function of the national government to stimulate the states to undertake this new and needed form of service; second, that federal funds are necessary in order to equalize the burden of carrying on the work among the states; third, that since the federal government is vitally interested in the success of vocational education, it should, so to speak, purchase a degree of participation in the work; and fourth, that only by creating such a relationship between the central and the local governments can proper standards of educational efficiency be set up.[1]

In this act the federal government recognizes that a *certain kind of education is essential to national welfare*, and that *federal funds are necessary to equalize the burden in carrying on the work*. The next step is for the federal government to recognize that *public education in general is essential to national welfare* and that federal funds are necessary, not only to equalize the burden, but to make it possible to carry on the work of education and to maintain proper standards. When this principle is recognized it will be necessary only to set up the machinery for carrying out the idea, and the solution of the salary problem will be under way.

III

What, in detail, this machinery is to be is a question which naturally remains, in large measure, to be workt out. But since this Association, if it indorses the method of national aid, must be prepared to make specific recommendations and to take an active part in the reorganization and extension of the system of school support, a tentative program is demanded. The committee therefore submits the following:

1. That the management of schools remain in the hands of local authorities but that they be required to maintain standards which are fixt by law or by state and federal boards of education relative to:

a) Buildings and equipment.

b) Qualifications and standards of teachers.

c) Length of school term.

d) Proper enforcement of attendance laws.

e) Hygienic conditions, including medical inspection.

f) Proper provision for the education of special groups of children, such as defectives and delinquents.

g) Number of pupils per teacher, minimum and maximum.

h) Forms of education, elementary, secondary, industrial, physical, etc.

i) Such other requirements as may be found necessary and desirable.

2. That the local boards be required to raise by taxation at least one-fourth of the total amount required for teachers' salaries, provided that no local tax rate for this purpose

[1] Quoted from *Bulletin No. 1*, p. 7. Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, 1917.

shall exceed a minimum of, say, five mills (50 cents on $100) on a fair assessment of all property in the local unit of taxation.

3. That the state provide at least one-fourth of the funds for teachers' salaries, with proper reporting and adequate inspection and supervision of accounts, to the end that all laws and regulations may be carried out.

4. That state and national funds be apportioned on a basis which will enable local school boards to maintain legal standards and to pay adequate salaries to teachers.[1]

5. That federal aid be given to each state to an amount, in each case, not exceeding one-half of the salaries of all teachers in elementary and secondary schools, and that additional aid be given for special purposes, such as the education of foreigners and adult illiterates, the extension of physical education, and especially the training of teachers. This aid should be extended in such a way as to stimulate the state and local communities to maintain high educational standards.

A tentative draft of a bill extending federal aid to the different states has been prepared by the Commission of the National Education Association on the National Emergency in Education. This draft has been printed and circulated so that proper criticisms may be offered before its final formulation.

The tentative draft provides for the appropriation of $100,000,000 a year by the federal government to the different states for educational purposes, divided as follows: $5,000,000 for the instruction of illiterates; $5,000,000 for teaching immigrants the English language and instructing them in the duties of citizenship; $50,000,000 to aid the states in the improvement of public schools of less than college grade; $30,000,000 for physical education and recreation; $10,000,000 to furnish better instruction in teacher training.

In addition to the appropriation the tentative draft provides for the establishment of a Department of Education and for the necessary machinery for carrying out the provisions of the proposed law.

The committee approves of this draft in principle but deems the amount of the appropriation too small. The estimate of United States Commissioner Claxton of $220,000,000 will come nearer meeting the requirements. The passage of this or a similar measure will mark a new epoch in the educational history of the nation and will place public education on a basis which will enable it to be properly finanst and supervised.

IV

But many things must be done before teachers really receive adequate salaries. There is not only need for Congress to pass a law appropriating a large sum of money for teachers' salaries, but there must be appropriate school legislation in every state to supplement and make available any funds that may be furnisht by the federal government. In case Congress fails

[1] This is one of the most difficult problems in the whole realm of school finance. A scientific solution of it is greatly needed. No single basis of apportionment is satisfactory. The best systems now in use are those which provide for the apportionment of part of the funds on the teacher basis, another part on the census basis, or better yet on the aggregate-attendance basis, and a third part, not so large as either of the other two (which usually should be in the form of a special appropriation), on basis of need of the poorer districts. The last provision is a necessity in order that proper standards may be maintained.

to act favorably, then it is to the state legislatures that teachers must look for additional funds. Back of these are the local city councils and boards of education. Much depends upon the action of these whether or not adequate salaries are paid to individual teachers. But back of all these are the people of the community, state, and nation, and public opinion will finally decide what is to be done and to what extent the campaign for adequate salaries will succeed. This is a time of war, a day when exacting demands are being made upon the strength, the attention, and the resources of government—national, state, and local. It is a time when people are called upon to sacrifice and to *pay, pay, pay*. Unless the people can be made to see, not only the justice of the demand, but the *necessity* for better salaries for teachers, unless they can be convinst that proper support of the schools is necessary for winning the war and for reconstruction after the war, any plans which may be formulated are doomed to failure in advance. "There are two armies for the defense of our civilization," says Dr. John Finley. "One is the army of Present Defense; the other is the army of Future Defense, and unless they both do their work well it matters little what the first Army of Defense does. It is upon both armies that civilization depends —if either fails all is lost."

To secure wide publicity, to collect and disseminate necessary information, to prepare data for educational legislation, and to do many other things which must be done, teachers must organize. *Organization is absolutely necessary to success*. There will be needed:

1. Effective national, state, and local organizations among teachers, with leaders of experience, knowledge, and social vision, and a large active membership that is willing to study and work.

2. Committees to study the system of educational support[1] and the problems of taxation in each state and to make available reliable data for use in formulating measures to be introduced in the various legislatures. In this connection public officials and the departments of education and economics in the universities and colleges can render valuable assistance thru their faculties and graduate students.

3. Organization to secure the cooperation of other organizations in carrying thru educational measures—labor unions, chambers of commerce, granges, editorial associations, women's clubs, political parties. These are the agencies whereby public opinion is created and directed, and their support may be obtained by proper effort.

4. Organization for publicity. Educational writers and speakers should be enlisted and a systematic campaign made to keep the subject before the public. *Show the people the needs of their schools and they can be relied on to see that the necessary funds are forthcoming.*

[1] Such research should include a study of methods of apportioning school appropriations in order that a scheme may be devised whereby the poorer districts may support their schools without placing undue burdens on their people.

It will also be necessary to enlist the cooperation of the United States Bureau of Education and other agencies for the collection and dissemination of accurate data relative to salaries, and to make investigations of the economic conditions of teachers in different parts of the country and publish the results obtained. By this means up-to-date material may be available continually.[1]

Finally the committee wishes to call attention to the necessity of the appointment of an official representative of the National Education Association who shall devote his entire time to carrying on the work begun by the committee. This person should be a member of long experience in the teaching profession, capable of statistical inquiries, of wide knowledge of taxation for educational purposes, and fitted especially for making effective public appeal both in writing and by speech. He should be guaranteed a salary corresponding with his duties and should be supplied with a budget which will enable him to secure efficient office help and necessary printing and traveling expenses. So far as his time is not occupied by other duties connected with the whole field of employment, tenure, salaries, and pensions, it might well be given as adviser and director of local campaigns in cities and states which might desire his services termporarily. It should be the duty of this officer to keep the National Education Association constantly at the head of movements for the improvement of material conditions of teachers in this country. Such an officer should not be primarily a student of statistics. He should be an organizer and executive. Your committee is clear that not less than $10,000 for the next fiscal year should be appropriated at once for the purpose named above. The crisis is too acute to depend longer on a volunteer committee, the members of which are already loaded with other interests. There must be at least one representative educational leader drafted to devote his entire energies to this work.

[1] The United States Commissioner of Education has kindly offered to carry out the suggestion made above. He has already collected data relative to increases in salaries in 108 cities, which is publisht in Appendix VII of this report.

II. REPORT ON TENURE

The chairman, in accordance with the decision of this committee to undertake a study of tenure of teachers, has secured the cooperation of the United States Bureau of Education. Commissioner Claxton writes as follows: "Mr. Hood, in this office, tells me that it will be comparatively easy to get facts of tenure laws in the several states. Most states have no laws on this subject. This office could, with a little help from your committee, compile data on this subject in a hundred cities and a hundred counties which would probably be a sufficient number for your purpose." Continuity of employment during efficiency and good behavior is essential to any sound pension system and any sound educational system.

The committee has devoted no time or special study to the subject of tenure. It is self-evident, however, that a pension system to be sound and satisfactory must require mandatory deductions from teachers' salaries, and this compulsory saving naturally tends toward permanent tenure.

One of the biggest things in the way of tenure legislation of which the committee knows is the revised state education law for New York which was past in 1917, and this law gives permanent tenure during satisfactory service, after a probationary period of three years, to all members of the teaching and supervising force except superintendents. In New York City the district superintendents of schools and the members of the Board of Examiners are included in the provision giving permanent tenure.

Joseph Swain, *Chairman*
Ernest C. Moore
Margaret A. Haley
David B. Jonhson
Harlan Updegraff
Grace C. Forsythe
James Ferguson
Francis G. Blair
John W. Carr

III. REPORT ON PENSIONS

PRELIMINARY STATEMENT

The National Education Association's Committee on Salaries, Tenure, and Pensions, appointed in 1911, has publisht, independently or in co-operation with the United States Bureau of Education, reports on *Teachers' Salaries and Cost of Living* (January, 1913), *The Tangible Rewards of Teaching* (Bulletin 16, U.S. Bureau of Education, 1914), *Salaries of Teachers and School Officers* (Bulletin 31, U.S. Bureau of Education, 1915), and *State Pension Systems for Public-School Teachers* (Bulletin 14, U.S. Bureau of Education, 1916).

The committee has also enlisted the cooperation of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, which, in addition to its granting of pensions to university and college professors, has conducted, for a dozen years, comprehensive studies of pensions for teachers, wherever such systems exist. The president of the Foundation, Dr. Henry S. Pritchett, has placed at the disposal of the committee all of this material, together with the services of the secretary of the Foundation, Dr. Clyde Furst, and his colleague, Dr. I. L. Kandel.

These gentlemen have met in extensive conference with the committee and invited representatives from each state at the meetings of the National Education Association and its Department of Superintendence, at Detroit and New York in 1916, and Atlantic City and Pittsburgh in 1918. The reports which they prepared for these meetings, the meeting at Kansas City in 1917 and the meeting of the National Council of Education at New York in 1916, have been printed in the *Tenth*, *Eleventh*, and *Twelfth Annual Reports* of the Carnegie Foundation, which have been sent, without charge, to all teachers who requested them. Addresses on pensions, delivered by Commissioner Claxton, Dr. Furst, and the chairman of the committee, before the Association as a whole, at New York in 1916, are printed in the *Proceedings* of that meeting.

All of the material thus provided by the Foundation is brought together, completed, and rearranged in Bulletin Number Twelve: *Pensions for Public School Teachers*, which the Foundation will send, without charge, to any teacher who requests it. The committee desires to record its appreciation of the sympathetic and complete cooperation of the Carnegie Foundation, which has thus rendered a service to every teacher in the country.

TEACHERS' PENSIONS

There are many reasons for teachers' pensions. Economically the work of an organization is not effective unless there is a satisfactory method of

retiring aged or infirm workers, with the consequent freedom from anxiety concerning such risks on the part of the workers. Only a satisfactory pension system can prevent either the dismissal of aged or infirm teachers without resources, or the sacrifice of the best interests of the schools in order to continue the employment of teachers who are no longer capable. Socially, men and women of character and intelligence are willing to undertake difficult public service that is poorly paid; but it is too much to expect them also to sacrifice the prospect of security and dignity in old age and disability. Educationally there is great need to attract, retain, and advance able people in teaching as a permanent career. A good pension system helps to do this.

These facts were first apprehended in the United States a quarter of a century ago. Eight systems of pensions for teachers were founded before 1900, twenty-three in the next decade, and thirty-six since the beginning of 1910. There are now sixty-seven different systems in thirty-four states. The experience of this brief period has been fruitful, so that we are already able to correct errors and proceed with more assurance. The time should soon come when every state will have made such provision for its teachers.

The organization of the teachers' pension systems now in existence is generally satisfactory, there being ordinarily a small special board upon which the teachers and the public are about equally represented. More attention, however, is demanded by the need to have the actual administration under expert direction with the supervision of the state's banking and insurance commissioners.

The greatest difficulty that has been encountered has been the provision of adequate funds. The cost of a pension system for teachers may be borne by the teacher alone, by the public alone, or by the teacher and the public together. If the cost is borne by the teacher alone, he cannot afford, out of a small salary, to set aside enough money to purchase adequate protection, and the public fails to fulfil its obligation. If the cost is borne by the public alone, the money is really taken from the teachers' salaries without their agreement, and the majority, who withdraw or die before retirement, receive no return for their reduced pay. When the cost is borne by the teachers and the public together, the teacher receives appropriate compensation and contractual security, and the teacher and the public cooperate in an economic, social, and educational obligation. This principle of cooperation between the teacher and the public is recognized by most of the pension systems that are now in operation.

The application of the principle of cooperation, however, is not so satisfactory. Only a few systems relate the amount of the contribution to the prospective cost of the pensions. Frequently public money is expected from sources like excise, inheritance, license, or transfer receipts; or deductions, fines, or forfeitures from teachers' salaries for absence or illness; or from the tuition of non-resident students, which cannot be accurately estimated in advance and so cannot furnish a reliable basis for

pension payments. Equally unsatisfactory is the expectation of paying pensions, when they fall due, from current school or other funds, without any assurance that these funds will be adequate; or from special or general appropriations, without any certainty that such appropriations will be made by future and perhaps unsympathetic administrations. Indeed it is not uncommon to limit in advance the sums that may be taken from such sources, thus reducing the proportion of the pension that can be paid, or leaving the whole question of payment largely to accident.

The only way in which absolute security can be obtained is for the contribution of the public as well as that of the teacher to be paid annually, credited to the individual teacher, and set aside to accumulate until the time of his retirement. This also is the only economical method. Any system which agrees to pay a pension from current funds after the teacher retires, plans to spend two or three times as much money as would be required if sums were set aside each year to accumulate during the teacher's period of service. Any other method is parallel to issuing bonds without provision for retiring them.

Pension systems are still too generally organized without estimating their cost. The probable length of life of a teacher in service or after retirement may be estimated from the tables of mortality that have been developt by the life insurance companies, with adjustment for the fact that teachers live longer than other people. Some basis is becoming available for estimates of the likelihood of disability and the probable length of life after retirement because of disability. It is wise to avoid, so far as possible, basing pensions upon salaries at or near the age of retirement, since no one can predict what any teachers' salary will be thirty, or forty, or fifty years hence.

There is, of course, a definite relation between the benefits and the cost of pensions. No one can secure expensive benefits in return for very small contributions. Only failure awaits the systems which promise retirement after twenty years of service or at the age of fifty; or in which teachers contribute only one-half of 1 per cent of their salaries, or the public contributes only one-half as much as the teachers.

Such errors may easily be corrected by a very simple pension system based upon conservative tables of mortality and upon a safe rate of interest, with the provision that the teacher receives the benefit of the accumulation of all of his contributions and those made for him. It is possible to estimate with reasonable definiteness what certain desired benefits will cost, or what benefits can be had for the money available. It is easy to estimate what any annual contribution, beginning at any age and accumulating at a given percentage, will amount to after any number of years. If then the money is deposited in a central fund, each contributor can be guaranteed a definite annuity for life, since the lives of all are averaged in the standard mortality tables. Thus an annual contribution of $100 a year, beginning at

the age of twenty-five, and accumulated at 4 per cent interest, will amount at sixty-five to $8,882.65, at seventy to $12,587.06. These sums will provide a man with an annuity for life, according to the McClintock Table of Mortality and 3½ per cent interest, of $1086 a year beginning at sixty-five, or $1681 a year beginning at seventy. If, on the other hand, a man wishes to be sure of a life annuity of $1000 a year at sixty-five or seventy, he knows that this will cost $9098.60 or $8642.40 at those ages, and that it would require an annual contribution of $92 or of $68 a year from the age of twenty-five to accumulate these sums. The annuities from such a contribution for women, who live longer than men, would be about four-fifths of the sums that have been mentioned.

These figures imply a return of the accumulations of the teachers who die before retirement and of those who withdraw from the system for any reason. If it is desired for the sake of family protection, there may be also a return of the balance of the accumulations of the teachers who retire but die before they have drawn all of their accumulations. This also can be calculated from standard mortality and interest tables. This protection costs about one-fourth more than a straight annuity. If further protection is desired against disability, this can be similarly provided, by the use of the best tables that we have, with the proviso that the rates for those who enter into the system in the future may be modified according to future experience.

A pension system of the kind that has been mentioned is just and fair to all concerned, giving the teacher secure and adequate protection at a reasonable cost to himself and to the public.

Such a system provides for retirement on the basis of age or of disability after any suitable period of service. The age of retirement, which is now usually fixt, can, if desired, be left to the teacher and the administration. If the need is great retirement may be earlier, in spite of the fact that the smaller accumulations would then make the pension smaller. In general, retirement will in all probability be later than at present because of the larger pension provided by the longer accumulation, and the educational desirability of keeping the able teacher in service as long as possible.

Disability can be provided for by using whatever money has been accumulated at the time when retirement becomes unavoidable, perhaps with some supplement from the state until statistical experience makes it possible to provide specifically for disability.

The newer system provides full protection for both the teacher and those who are dependent upon him, since the form of contribution sets up a contractual relation which provides definite returns in case of withdrawal or death. Return of contribution in case of resignation is now arranged for, but return in case of dismissal and in the case of death is seldom provided for. Contractual arrangements for the return of contributions will facilitate the desirable transfer of the teacher from one system to another.

Indeed, with the spread of sound plans, pension systems thruout the country will become more and more uniform, so that the experience of each will help all. Continuity of employment during efficiency and good behavior is essential to any sound pension system.

Joseph Swain, *Chairman*
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JOINT RESOLUTION OF THE COMMITTEE ON SALARIES, TENURE, AND PENSIONS, AND THE COMMISSION ON THE NATIONAL EMERGENCY IN EDUCATION

Our schools are in danger. Their present support cannot keep up former standards, much less meet war demands.

The money now available is not sufficient to instruct five million illiterates, to Americanize thirteen million foreigners, to provide physical and health education for all children, to secure adequate school terms and attendance, to pay teachers a living wage, and to provide for their professional preparation, development, security, and protection in disability and old age.

The teachers of the country were not receiving a living wage before the war; their present situation is critical. In 1915 they received an average annual salary of $543. The increase since then has been small.

Immediate national aid is urgently needed. Increast local taxation and state support will not suffice; such support will of necessity be available in very unequal degree even if it could be had quickly.

Education in agriculture and the mechanic and household arts has long been recognized as essential to national welfare, and national funds are provided to equalize its burdens and maintain its standards.

General public education is even more essential to national welfare to promote the allegiance, intelligence, morality, and devotion of all citizens.

National support of general public education, begun in 1785, confirmed in the ordinance of 1787, and extended thereafter, should now be increast to the extent of a liberal cooperation with the state, and thru the state with the local community.

A national department of education should be establisht to carry out this program of cooperation.

The National Education Association, in order to collect full information concerning the present state of public education, to enlighten public opinion, and to aid in securing appropriate local, state, and national school support, hereby authorizes the Executive Committee to secure the full time, for a term of not less than three years, of an educator of recognized ability and

experience, and to provide for the organization, correspondence, travel, publication, and other expenses of his office, a total sum, including salaries, of at least ten thousand dollars a year.

JOSEPH SWAIN, *Chairman,*
Committee on Salaries, Tenure, and Pensions
GEORGE D. STRAYER, *Chairman,*
Commission on the National Emergency in Education

NOTE.—This Resolution was unanimously adopted by the National Education Association at Pittsburgh, July 5, 1918.

APPENDIX I

SUMMARY OF REPLIES OF STATE SUPERINTENDENTS TO QUESTIONS 1, 2, 3, 4, AND 6, RELATIVE TO TEACHERS' SALARIES

(Compiled from letters received direct from state superintendents since May 23, 1918)

State	Question 1: Percentage of Increase in Salaries Necessary to Meet War Conditions		Question 2: Amount Expended for Teachers' Salaries in 1917		Question 3: Are the Laws Such that Local Communities Can Levy Sufficient Funds for Adequate Salaries?			Question 4: Are Adequate Funds Available for Additional State Support?	Question 6: Do You Favor National Aid to the Different States?
	Elementary and Rural Teachers	High-School Teachers and Supervisors	Raised by Local Taxation	Appropriated by the State	In Rural Communities	In Towns and Smaller Cities	In Large Cites		
Alabama	15	15	$1,174,936	$ 2,370,638	*a*	.....	.....	No	On proper basis
Delaware	25	25	.....	.....	Yes	Yes, with few exceptions	No, Wilmington cannot	.....	Yes, with restrictions
Florida	25 to 50	*b*	334,254	1,905,198*c*	*d*	.....	.....	State levies one mill school tax—constitutional tax	No, too much red tape
Iowa	20	20	12,000,000	.....	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes, all we give	.....
Kansas	25	20	8,430,984	135,000	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Kentucky	40	25	1,663,308	3,812,375	No, *e*	No	No	No	Yes, under certain conditions
Maine	25 to 50	25 to 50	Local and state	2,527,739*f*	*g*	*g*	*g*	No	Yes
Maryland	50	50	4,000,000	2,000,000	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Massachusetts	.....	.....	14,808,670	Total *h*	Yes	Yes	Yes	None	.....
Minnesota	15 to 20	.....	9,000,000	3,000,000	Yes	Yes	Not all	.....	Yes
Mississippi	33	33	*i*	.....	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Missouri	25	25	11,131,000	Not separated	No, *j*	No	No	No	Yes
Montana	20 to 33⅓	20 to 33⅓	5,167,565	722,728	Yes, except in weak districts	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
New Hampshire	25	.....	*k*	.....	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
North Carolina	30	25	4,500,000	874,000	Yes	Yes	Yes	Questionable	Yes
North Dakota	10 to 25 to highest and 70 to lowest	10 to 25 to highest and 70 to lowest	4,300,000	Not separated	Yes,	Yes	Yes	No	Yes, decidedly
Oregon	18	12½	3,927,984	260,000	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Pennsylvania	.....	.....	Do not know	18,000,000	*m*	.....	.....	.....	Yes, if there are not too many strings attached
Rhode Island	.....	.....	1,699,463	158,000	*n*	.....	.....	No	Not under the conditions ordinarily attached to national aid

South Dakota....	25	25	2,213,395	1,016,273	Yes	Yes	Yes	No, not needed	That will depend upon the ultimate object for which the aid is given
Texas.....	40	25	8,801,435	10,059,620	No	No	Generally, yes	No	No, I think not
Utah.....	25 to 33	25 to 33	1,300,000	1,000,000	No	No	Yes	No	.....
Vermont.....	20	15	1,277,165	440,000	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Under proper conditions
Virginia.....	30	30	2,300,000	2,500,000	No, *o*	No	Yes, by budget	No	Yes
Washington.....	15 to 20	15 to 20	4,000,000	4,000,000*p*	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Wisconsin.....	10 to 25	10 to 25	*q*	2,455,518	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Only in states that are unable to maintain schools up to a reasonable standard fixed by the nation
Wyoming.....	25	25	*r*	.....	*s*	*s*	*s*	No state support	Yes, if method of apportionment involves local effort

a, Three mills county tax and 3 mills district tax by election in all communities (Alabama).

b, They can get along without increase (Florida).

c, From county school tax $1,905,198. Poll tax and one mill state tax included in the foregoing (Florida).

d, Can levy 3 mills for teachers, 5 for other purposes, in rural communities. Counties can now levy 7 mills, which will be raised to 10 mills by the November election of 1918 (Florida).

e, No, but 1918 legislature improved by fixing a local tax of 30 cents (Kentucky).

f, More than 50 per cent by state equalization fund (Maine).

g, Limited only by themselves in all counties (Maine).

h, Vocational-school teachers $302,228; Massachusetts school fund, $206,411; high school transportation and grants, $124,893; Union superintendents and teachers, $79,581 (Massachusetts).

i, Raised by local taxation, 60 per cent; appropriated by the state, 40 per cent (Mississippi).

j, Constitutional limitation (Missouri).

k, The state pays one-half of the salary of the district superintendents; also in small towns $2 per week for certified teachers (New Hampshire).

l, Yes, in the majority of cases, but in many cases where the size of the district is small or assessed valuation low, they are over their limit now and could not pay more (North Dakota).

m, In cities of the first class not more than 6 mills nor less than 5 mills can be levied (Pennsylvania).

n, The law interposes no obstacles to assessment of sufficient revenue. There are practical restrictions upon the ability of rural towns to increase revenue by additional taxation (Rhode Island).

o, Not over 50 cents on $100 can be levied in rural communities (Virginia).

p, Four million dollars state and county (Washington).

q, Amount raised by district not known. Amount raised by counties approximately same as state (Wisconsin).

r, Raised by local taxation, $652,263 for all purposes; state none; counties, general school fund, $510,091; total amount spent for teachers' salaries in 1917, $908,867 (Wyoming).

s, In most instances, yes (Wyoming).

APPENDIX II

MEASURES ADOPTED TO MEET THE PRESENT EMERGENCY

The following extracts are the replies of state superintendents to question 5 of the questionnaires sent out by the Committee on Teachers' Salaries. It is the latest information on present conditions.

Alabama.—Local tax levy.

Delaware.—Last general assembly increast the school funds by taxing incomes.

Florida.—Constitutional amendment raising tax from 7 to 10 mills will carry with little opposition in the November election. Many counties have voted to raise teachers' salaries an average of 10 per cent.

Iowa.—Each district has its own budget to make up. We levy $40 per pupil and $60 in districts transporting pupils.

Kentucky.—By legislature fixing a 30-cent rate for county outside of city. By consolidation. By economizing so far as possible in expense of maintenance.

Maine.—The state of Maine offers this year an average increase in the salaries of superintendents thus far elected of about four hundred dollars, and there is evidently an increase in teachers' wages of at least 25 per cent.

Maryland.—The recent session of the legislature increast the state appropriation $250,000 and increast the minimum salaries for teachers from 25 to 50 per cent.

Massachusetts.—Legislation. In 1918 minimum of union superintendents raised from $1500 to $1800; also $550 minimum for all teachers except in towns of less than $1,000,000 valuation.

Minnesota.—Increase of local taxation for school purposes.

Mississippi.—We are making a campaign for more money by local taxation.

Missouri.—An attempt has been made by a state tax commission appointed by the governor, authorized by the state legislature, to raise the valuation of property. The work of this commission was set aside by the state Board of Equalization.

Montana.—Additional special levy.

North Carolina.—Special local taxation for immediate relief. A movement to amend the state constitution requiring a greater minimum length of term with proper legal statuary enforcement.

North Dakota.—Have given as much publicity as possible to the necessity for a material increase in salaries. No legislature has met. Hence no bills for it.

Oregon.—Principally larger district tax levy.

Pennsylvania.—Our new minimum-salary law advances the salary from $40 and $50 respectively to $45, $55, and $65, and the amount needed to make this increase will be taken out of the general school appropriation, which was raised to $18,000,000 at the last session of the legislature.

Rhode Island.—School committees are asking town meetings and city councils for lower appropriations.

South Dakota.—By inducing school boards to levy sufficient tax.

Texas.—By raising valuations of property.

Utah.—Attempt being made to tax mines.

Vermont.—Our local boards are raising salaries in many cases 25 per cent.

Virginia.—Increase standard appropriations and have levy to limit.

Washington.—Conferences with all county officials and circular letters to all school directors, superintendents, and principals.

Wisconsin.—Local authorities are increasing tax levy for that purpose.

Wyoming.—Maintain a teachers' employment bureau in the department of education, which maintains standards. Convince district boards that other professions will take desirable teachers at higher wages.

APPENDIX III

ESTIMATED SALARIES AND EXPENDITURES NECESSARY TO MEET THE ADVANCE IN COST OF LIVING IN 1918

The average salaries and expenditures for teachers' salaries are taken from *Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1917*, II, 50 and 54.

The estimated salaries to meet the advance in the cost of living are based on the table found on page 20 of the *Report of the Railroad Wage Commission for 1918*, Washington, D.C.

State	Average Salaries of Teachers, 1914–15	Estimated Salaries to Meet the Advance in Cost of Living, 1918	Percentage of Increase	Total Expenditures for Teachers' Salaries, 1914–15	Estimated Expenditures to Meet the Advance in Cost of Living, 1918
Maine	$ 411.13	$ 651.13	58	$ 2,240,982	$ 3,540,752
New Hampshire	472.34	712.34	51	1,200,110	1,812,166
Vermont	418.77	658.77	57	1,246,816	1,957,501
Massachusetts	810.72	1143.11	41	14,789,286	20,852,893
Rhode Island	714.37	1007.26	41	1,807,332	2,548,338
Connecticut	619.36	878.80	41	4,363,034	6,183,728
New York	975.13	1365.18	40	46,690,195	65,366,273
New Jersey	861.86	1215.22	41	12,301,576	17,345,222
Pennsylvania	465.72	705.72	52	25,687,143	39,044,457
Ohio	537.52	777.52	44	18,789,778	27,057,280
Indiana	592.69	847.55	43	11,168,718	15,971,267
Illinois	713.84	1006.51	41	23,179,650	32,683,306
Michigan	557.71	797.53	43	11,931,113	17,061,492
Wisconsin	542.02	782.02	44	8,850,051	12,744,073
Minnesota (1914)	469.28	709.28	51	10,375,207	15,666,698
Iowa	506.09	746.09	47	11,174,716	16,426,833
Missouri	533.59	773.59	43	10,767,962	15,398,186
North Dakota	574.76	821.91	43	3,695,051	5,283,923
South Dakota	457.27	697.27	52	2,987,437	4,540,904
Nebraska	454.67	694.67	53	6,217,797	9,513,229
Kansas	635.34	895.83	41	7,933,519	11,186,262
Delaware	358.31*	598.31	67	263,608	440,225
Maryland	561.83	803.42	43	3,495,724	4,998,885
District of Columbia	1019.08	1426.71	40	1,760,667	2,464,934
Virginia	332.19	572.19	72	4,156,959	7,149,969
West Virginia	320.29	560.29	75	3,545,573	6,204,753
North Carolina	251.31	491.31	96	3,487,304	6,835,116
South Carolina	282.68	522.68	85	2,281,249	4,220,311
Georgia	305.97	545.97	78	4,385,259	7,805,761
Florida (1914)	327.00	567.00	73	1,644,481	2,844,952
Kentucky	342.96	582.96	70	4,270,554	7,259,942
Tennessee	335.20	575.20	72	4,185,097	7,198,367
Alabama	345.00	585.00	70	3,579,199	6,084,638
Mississippi (1913)	233.64	473.64	103	2,173,717	4,412,646
Louisiana	437.19	677.19	55	3,451,226	5,349,400
Texas	428.20	668.20	56	11,373,280	17,742,317
Arkansas	334.94	574.94	72	3,567,461	6,136,033
Oklahoma	438.69	678.69	55	6,179,928	9,578,888
Montana	640.07	902.50	41	2,775,290	3,913,159
Wyoming	494.06	734.06	49	856,059	1,275,528
Colorado	560.58	801.63	43	4,402,243	6,295,207
New Mexico	507.54	747.54	47	974,608	1,432,674
Arizona	738.96	1041.93	41	943,525	1,330,370
Utah	691.66	975.24	41	2,572,114	3,626,681
Nevada	725.08	1022.36	41	484,855	683,646
Idaho	665.16	927.88	41	2,094,875	2,953,774
Washington	808.42	1139.87	41	7,854,843	11,075,329
Oregon	506.35	746.35	47	3,786,684	5,566,419
California	951.27	1340.05	40	17,062,504	24,035,949
United States	$ 543.31	$ 788.43	45.3	$345,006,445	$511,100,656

* Exclusive of Wilmington.

APPENDIX IV

PERCENTAGE OF ILLITERACY BY STATES

States in which the number of illiterates increast from 1900 to 1910. Sixteen states increast in the number of illiterates, all in North and West.

TABLE A

Based on Census of 1910, Abstract, p. 245

State	No. of Illiterates, 1900	No. of Illiterates, 1910	Increase	Percentage of Increase
Massachusetts	134,043	141,541	7,498	5.6
Rhode Island	29,004	33,854	4,850	16.7
Connecticut	42,973	53,665	10,692	24.9
New York	318,100	406,020	87,920	27.6
New Jersey	86,658	113,502	26,844	31.0
Pennsylvania	299,376	354,290	54,914	18.3
Illinois	157,958	168,294	10,336	6.5
North Dakota	12,719	13,070	351	2.8
Montana	11,675	14,457	2782	23.8
Wyoming	2,878	3,874	996	34.6
Colorado	17,779	23,780	6,001	33.7
New Mexico	46,971	48,697	1,726	3.7
Arizona	27,307	32,953	5,646	20.7
Utah	6,141	6,821	680	11.1
Washington	12,740	18,416	5,676	44.7
California	58,959	74,902	15,943	27.0

TABLE B

Per Cent
30
28
26
24
22
20
18
16
14
12
10
8
6
4
2
0
Average for United States 7.7 Per Cent
Median 5.5 Per Cent
16 states above the average
Per Cent
Iowa 1.7
Nebraska 1.9
Oregon 1.9
Washington 2.0
Kansas 2.2
Idaho 2.2
Utah 2.5
South Dakota 2.9
Minnesota 3.0
Indiana 3.1
North Dakota 3.1
Ohio 3.2
Wisconsin 3.2
Michigan 3.3
Wyoming 3.3
Colorado 3.7
California 3.7
Vermont 3.7
Illinois 3.7
Maine 4.1
Missouri 4.3
New Hampshire 4.6
Montana 4.8
Massachusetts 5.2
New York 5.5
New Jersey 5.6
Oklahoma 5.6
Pennsylvania 5.9
Connecticut 6.0
Nevada 6.7
Maryland 7.2
Rhode Island 7.7
Delaware 8.1
West Virginia 8.3
Texas 9.9
Kentucky 12.1
Arkansas 12.6
Tennessee 13.6
Florida 13.8
Virginia 15.2
North Carolina 18.5
New Mexico 20.2
Georgia 20.7
Arizona 20.9
Mississippi 22.4
Alabama 22.9
South Carolina 25.7
Louisiana 29.0

APPENDIX V

DENSITY OF ILLITERATE POPULATION

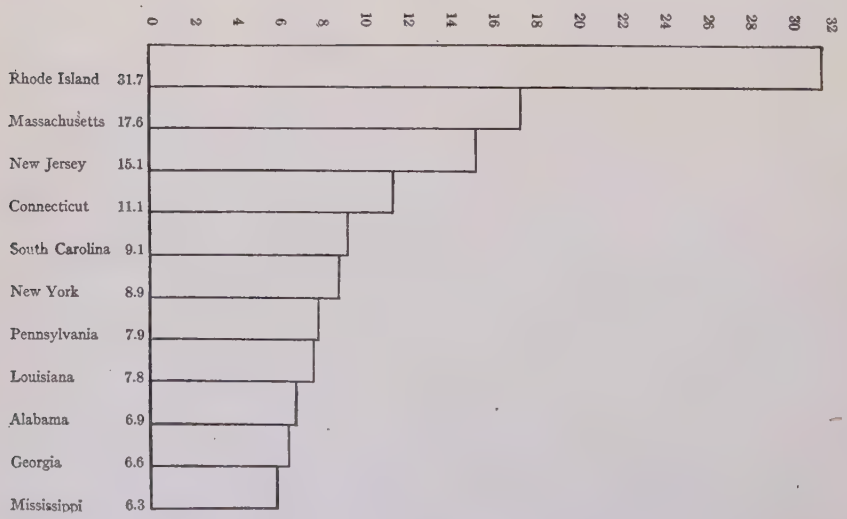
Great manufacturing states of the North compared with the states of the Black Belt of the South.

See Abstract of Thirteenth Census (1910), p. 28; also p. 245.

TABLE A

State	Land Area	Number of Illiterates	Number per Square Mile
	GREAT MANUFACTURING STATES OF THE NORTH		
Massachusetts	8,039	141,541	17.6
Rhode Island	1,067	33,854	31.7
Connecticut	4,820	53,665	11.1
New York	45,409	406,020	8.9
New Jersey	7,514	113,502	15.1
Pennsylvania	44,832	354,290	7.9
Total	111,681	1,102,872	9.8
	STATES OF THE BLACK BELT OF THE SOUTH		
South Carolina	30,495	276,980	9.1
Georgia	58,725	389,775	6.6
Alabama	51,279	352,710	6.9
Mississippi	46,362	290,235	6.3
Louisiana	45,409	352,174	7.8
Total	232,270	1,661,879	7.1

TABLE B



APPENDIX VI

CITIES REPORTING NO INCREASE IN TEACHERS' SALARIES FOR 1918

Of 320 cities of over 10,000 population, 23 report no increase in salaries.
List furnished by the National Education Association Commission on the Emergency in Education, June, 1918.

City	No. of Teachers
1. Bethlehem, Pa.	68
2. Columbia, S.C.	109
3. Eureka, Cal.	59
4. Greensboro, N.C.	72
5. Jacksonville, Fla.	196
6. Jeffersonville, Ind.	41
7. Lexington, Ky.	149
8. Little Rock, Ark.	139
9. Los Angeles, Cal. (no change since 1914–15)	2589
10. Marshall, Tex.	71
11. Massillon, Ohio	77
12. Millville, N.J.	78
13. Mount Carmel, Pa.	58
14. Natchez, Miss.	36
15. Niagara Falls, N.Y.	196
16. Pawtucket, R.I.	161
17. Philadelphia, Pa.	5593
18. Rome, Ga.	39
19. Salem, Mass.	154
20. Vicksburg, Miss.	59
21. Washington, Pa.	104
22. Watertown, Mass.	77
23. York, Pa.	215
Total	10,340

APPENDIX VII

MAXIMUM AND MINIMUM TEACHERS' SALARIES IN 108 CITIES

(Compiled by Philander P. Claxton, United States Commissioner of Education, from data collected in May, 1918)

Location	High-School Teachers										Elementary-School Teachers									
	1915		1917–18		Percentage of Increase		1918–19		Percentage of Increase		1915		1917–18		Percentage of Increase		1918–19		Percentage of Increase	
	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.
California																				
Berkeley	$2000	$1200	$2000	$1200	0	0	*a*	*a*	*a*	*a*	$1500	$ 780	$1500	$ 840	0	7 2/9	*a*	*a*	*a*	*a*
Los Angeles	*b*	*b*	*b*	*b*	*b*	*b*	*b*	*b*	*b*	*b*	*b*	*b*	*b*	*b*	*b*	*b*	*b*	*b*	*b*	*b*
Oakland[a]	.....	.....	2400	1080	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Pasadena	1700	1100	1700	1100	0	0	*a*	*a*	*a*	*a*	1500	780[b]	1500	780[b]	0	0	*a*	*a*	*a*	*a*
Sacramento (state average)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
San Diego	2208	1200	2208	1200	0	0	.....	.....	.....	.....	1356	768	1356	768	0	0	.....	.....	.....	.....
Colorado																				
Denver	.....	.....	2200	1000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1200	720	.....	.....	$1260	$ 780	5	8 1/3
Connecticut																				
Bridgeport	1600	750	2000	800	25	6 2/3	.....	.....	.....	.....	850	500	1250	600	47 1/17	20	.....	.....	.....	.....
Meriden	1600	.....	1850	750	15 5/8	.....	2050	950	10 39/47	26 2/3	800	.....	1000	580	25	.....	1100	780	10	34 14/29
Naugatuck	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	700	450	800	500	14 4/7	11 1/9	900	600	12 1/2	20
New Britain	1600	850	1600	850	0	0	1800	950	12 1/2	11 11/17	1500	500	1500	500	0	0	1700	600	13 3/8	20
New Haven	2000	750	2250	750	12 1/2	0	*a*	*a*	*a*	*a*	1000	450	1250	500	25	11 1/9	*a*	*a*	*a*	*a*
Norwich	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	800	450	800	450	0	0	880	495	10	10
Stamford	2100	825	2100	825	0	0	2300	1025	9 11/21	24 8/33	1100	500[e]	1100	500	0	0	1330	700	18 2/11	40
District of Columbia																				
Washington	1800	1000	1890	1100	5	10	.....	.....	.....	.....	1350	600[d]	1417.50	660	5	10	.....	.....	.....	.....
Georgia																				
Atlanta {white	1800	960	.....	.....	.....	.....	1800	960	.....	.....	960	600	.....	.....	.....	.....	960	660	.....	.....
Atlanta {colored	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	600	420	.....	.....	.....	.....	612	453.60	.....	.....
Augusta	1800	900	1800	900	0	0	.....	.....	.....	.....	720	480[e]	720	480	0	0	.....	.....	.....	.....
Savannah {white	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	810	405	810	495	0	22 2/9	945	495	16 2/3	0
Savannah {colored	2000	495	2100	650	5	31 31/36	2300	650	9 11/21	0	630	315	675	360	7 1/7	14 2/7	720	360	6 2/3	0
Illinois																				
Aurora[f] (East Side)	1300	650	1600	750	23 1/13	15 5/13	.....	.....	.....	.....	850	650	950	750	11 13/17	15 5/13	.....	.....	.....	.....
Aurora (West Side)	1250	750	1400	750	12	0	1500	850	7 1/7	13 1/3	850	500	850	550	0	10	900	550	5 5/7	0
Belleville[g]	900	450	900	450	0	0	900	450	0	0	900	450	900	450	0	0	900	450	0	0
Decatur	1400	600	1450	800	3 4/7	33 1/3	1550	900	6 26/29	12 1/2	725[e]	425	750	550	3 13/29	29 7/17	800	600	6 2/3	9 1/11
East St. Louis	1800	750	1850	800	2 7/9	6 2/3	.....	.....	.....	.....	1000	450	1050	500	5	11 1/9	.....	.....	.....	.....
Rockford	1700	500	2000	750	17 1/17	50	2200	900	10	20	700	400	800	500	14 2/7	25	900	500	12 1/2	0

Indiana																				
Fort Wayne[k]											800	460	935	511	$16\frac{7}{7}$	$11\frac{3}{23}$				
South Bend[l]	1260	810	2000	800	$58\frac{8}{8}$	—	2200	880	10	10	810	390–400	1042	400–500	$28\frac{82}{84}$		1146.20	440–550	10	10
Iowa																				
Davenport	1500	800	1600	850	$6\frac{3}{4}$	$6\frac{1}{4}$	1800	1000	$12\frac{1}{2}$	$17\frac{11}{17}$	1500	550	1500	600	0	$9\frac{1}{11}$	1700	600	$13\frac{1}{3}$	0
Des Moines	1400	850	1400	900	0	$5\frac{15}{17}$	1550	1000	$10\frac{3}{4}$	$11\frac{1}{6}$	900	600	1000	650	$11\frac{1}{6}$	$8\frac{1}{2}$	1150	700	15	$7\frac{2}{13}$
Sioux City	1100	650	1800	800	$63\frac{7}{11}$	$23\frac{1}{13}$	2000	1000	$11\frac{1}{6}$	25	775	600	1350	650	$74\frac{0}{81}$	$8\frac{1}{8}$	1400	700	$3\frac{19}{27}$	$7\frac{9}{13}$
Waterloo (West)			1147.50	765			1215	832.50	$5\frac{4}{8}$	$8\frac{14}{17}$			720	607.50			787.50	652.50	$9\frac{8}{8}$	$7\frac{11}{27}$
Kansas																				
Topeka	1600	675	1645	720	$2\frac{13}{16}$	$6\frac{3}{3}$	1760	742.50	7	$3\frac{1}{8}$	855	450	900	495	$51\frac{5}{10}$	10	940.50	544.50	$4\frac{1}{2}$	10
Maine																				
Lewiston	800	800	950	950	$18\frac{3}{4}$	$18\frac{3}{4}$					675	625	800	750	$18\frac{14}{27}$	20				
Maryland																				
Baltimore	2200	700	2200	700	0	0					900	450	950	450	$5\frac{8}{8}$	0				
Massachusetts																				
Boston	3204	600	3204	960	0	60	*a*	*a*	*a*	*a*	2340	600[m]	2340	600[m]	0	0	*a*	*a*	*a*	*a*
Brockton	1900	1000	2000	1100	$51\frac{5}{16}$	10					750		850		$13\frac{1}{3}$					
Chelsea	1000		1200		20						800		1000		25					
Everett	2000	650	2100	900	5	$38\frac{6}{13}$					750	450	900	700	20	$55\frac{5}{5}$				
Fall River[n]	1100		1200		$9\frac{1}{11}$		1300		$8\frac{1}{2}$		700		800		$14\frac{2}{7}$		900		$12\frac{1}{2}$	
Fitchburg	2000		2100		5		2100		0		750		850		$13\frac{1}{3}$		900		$51\frac{16}{17}$	
Haverhill											700	400	850	500	$21\frac{1}{3}$	25	900	500	$51\frac{16}{17}$	0
Holyoke	1800	700	1900	700	$5\frac{8}{8}$	0	1900	700	0	0	850	450[o]	900	500[o]	$51\frac{15}{17}$	$11\frac{1}{8}$	900	500[o]	0	0
Lawrence	2200	700	2420	840	10	20					900	550	1080	660	20	20				
Lowell	2200	650	2400	650	$9\frac{1}{11}$	0					800	500	900	500	$12\frac{1}{2}$	0				
Malden {Men	1500		1550		$3\frac{1}{3}$		1650		$6\frac{1}{34}$		750		825		10		900		$9\frac{1}{11}$	
Malden {Women	950		1000		$51\frac{5}{19}$		1100		10											0
New Bedford	2000	1200	2100	1300	5	$8\frac{1}{3}$	2100	1300	0	0	900	800	1050	900	$16\frac{2}{3}$	$12\frac{1}{2}$	1050	900	0	
Pittsfield	1400	640	1500	640	$7\frac{1}{2}$	0	1500	640	0	0	800	400	800	520	0	30	800	520	0	0
Salem	800	800	900	900	$12\frac{1}{2}$	$12\frac{1}{2}$	900	900	0	0	700	500[p]	800	700[p]	$14\frac{2}{7}$	40	800	700[p]	0	0
Somerville	2250		2350		$4\frac{4}{8}$		2350		0		1000		1250		25		1250		0[r]	
Worcester	2000	900	2200	1000	10	$11\frac{0}{0}$					1500	550[o]	1600	600[q]	$6\frac{2}{3}$	$9\frac{1}{11}$				
Michigan																				
Battle Creek	1700	600	1800	650	$51\frac{5}{17}$	$8\frac{1}{2}$	2000	900	$11\frac{1}{6}$	$38\frac{6}{13}$	850	500	1000	600	$17\frac{11}{17}$	20	1100	700	10	$16\frac{2}{3}$
Jackson[r]	989		1203		$21\frac{3}{5}$		1325		$10\frac{1}{10}$		679		855		26		955		$11\frac{7}{10}$	
Kalamazoo	1410	780	1550	900	10	$15\frac{5}{13}$	1700	1100	10	$22\frac{3}{3}$	750	480	850	600	$13\frac{1}{3}$	25	1000	720	$17\frac{11}{17}$	20
Lansing	1450	600	1600	650	$10\frac{10}{29}$	$8\frac{1}{3}$	1700	800	$6\frac{1}{4}$	$23\frac{1}{13}$	650	450	1050	500	$61\frac{7}{13}$	$11\frac{1}{8}$	1150	650	$9\frac{11}{21}$	30
Saginaw (East)	1735.53	662.87	1909.09	795.45	10	20	2100	875	10	10	795.45	454.61	954.54	545.54	20	20	1050	600	10	10
Saginaw (West)	1250		1100		—		1250[s]					350		500		$42\frac{6}{7}$		650		30

[a] All maximum salaries vary with years of service.
[b] Not including kindergarten assistants, which is $660.
[c] Not including kindergarten helpers, which is $250.
[d] Not including kindergarten assistants, which is $500.
[e] Not including kindergarten assistants, which is $360.
[f] All are maxima in grades taught.
[g] Varies according to class of certificate held and years of experience.
[h] $925 for men in 1915 only. Maximum given is for women.
[i] Not including kindergarten assistants, which is $350.
[j] Not including kindergarten assistants, which is $400.
[k] No distinction made between high school and grades.
[l] Salaries actually paid.
[m] Not including kindergarten assistants, who receive $480.
[n] The figures for Fall River represent average salaries.
[o] Not including kindergarten assistants, who receive $50 less.
[p] Not including kindergarten assistants, who receive $200 less.
[q] Not including kindergarten assistants, who receive $100 less.
[r] The figures for Jackson represent average salaries.
[s] Original salary restored.

APPENDIX VII—*Continued*

Location	High-School Teachers										Elementary-School Teachers									
	1915		1917–18		Percentage of Increase		1918–19		Percentage of Increase		1915		1917–18		Percentage of Increase		1918–19		Percentage of Increase	
	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.
Missouri																				
Kansas City	.....	.....	$2100–2300	$300–500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	$1100–1300	$300–500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
St. Louis	$2180	$980	2400	1000	$10\frac{10}{100}$	$2\frac{2}{40}$	.....	.....	.....	.....	$1300	$600	1350	700	$3\frac{1}{13}$	$16\frac{2}{3}$	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nebraska																				
Omaha	1200	800	1500	800	25	0	.....	.....	.....	.....	1000	600	1100	600	10	0	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Hampshire																				
Manchester	2000	700	2200	700	10	0	.....	.....	.....	.....	800	500	850	500	$6\frac{1}{4}$	0	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Jersey																				
Jersey City	4000	900	4200	1000	5	$11\frac{1}{9}$	.....	.....	.....	.....	1700	600	1900	744	$11\frac{13}{17}$	24	.....	.....	.....	.....
Hoboken	2500	1300	2500	1300	0	0	2800	$1600	12	$23\frac{1}{13}$	1500	600	1500	600	0	0	$1800	$900	20	50
Newark {Men	3000	.....	3300	.....	10	.....	3300[a]	.....	0	.....	1700	.....	2000	.....	$17\frac{1}{17}$	.....	2000[a]	.....	0	.....
Newark {Women	2100	.....	2600	.....	$23\frac{17}{21}$	.....	2600[a]	.....	0	.....	1600	.....	1800	.....	$12\frac{1}{2}$	.....	1800[a]	.....	0	.....
Orange	2000	.....	2050	.....	$2\frac{1}{2}$	.....	2150	.....	$44\frac{39}{41}$	.....	.....	300	.....	375	.....	25	.....	475	.....	$26\frac{2}{3}$
Paterson	1800	700	2500	1000	$38\frac{88}{100}$	$42\frac{9}{10}$	.....	.....	.....	.....	950	475	1250	600	$31\frac{11}{19}$	$26\frac{6}{19}$	.....	.....	.....	.....
Perth Amboy	1800	700	2000	850	$11\frac{1}{9}$	$21\frac{3}{7}$	2150	1000	$7\frac{1}{2}$	$17\frac{11}{17}$	950	500	1000	550	$5\frac{6}{19}$	10	1150	700	15	$27\frac{3}{11}$
West Hoboken	2000	900	2000	900	0	0	2200	1000	10	$11\frac{1}{9}$	1200	550	1200	550	0	0	1500	700	25	$27\frac{3}{11}$
New York																				
Albany	2200	750	2300	800	$4\frac{6}{11}$	$6\frac{2}{3}$	.....	.....	.....	.....	1500	500	1575	550	5	10	.....	.....	.....	.....
Elmira	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	650	400	800	500	$23\frac{1}{13}$	25	900	500	$12\frac{1}{2}$	0
Jamestown	.....	.....	1500	600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	850	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Kingston	900	700	900	700	0	0	1000	700	$11\frac{1}{9}$	0	800	500	800	500	0	0	800	500	0	0
New Rochelle	1450	1000	2000	1050	$37\frac{27}{29}$	5	1800	1200	—	$14\frac{2}{7}$	1250	600	1350	650	8	$8\frac{1}{3}$	1350	800	0	$23\frac{1}{13}$
New York	3150	900	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2400	720	2400	800	0	$11\frac{1}{9}$	.....	.....	.....	.....
Niagara Falls	.....	.....	1000	800	.....	.....	1600	800	60	0	.....	.....	800	500	.....	.....	1100	600[b]	$37\frac{1}{2}$	20
Poughkeepsie	1300	800	1400	800	$7\frac{9}{13}$	0	.....	.....	.....	.....	700	550	750	550	$7\frac{1}{7}$	0	.....	.....	.....	.....
Rochester	1800[c]	.....	2000[d]	.....	$11\frac{1}{9}$	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1000	500	1200	600	20	20	.....	.....	.....	.....
Schenectady	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	750	550	950	600	$26\frac{2}{3}$	$9\frac{1}{11}$	950	600	0	0
Syracuse	2000	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	2200	500	.....	.....	750	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	900	400	.....	.....
Troy	1600	900	1600	950	0	$5\frac{5}{9}$	1650	1000	$3\frac{3}{8}$	$5\frac{6}{19}$	700	700	750	700	$7\frac{1}{7}$	0	800	750	$6\frac{2}{3}$	$7\frac{1}{7}$
Utica	1500	900	2000	900	$33\frac{1}{3}$	0	.....	.....	.....	.....	1100	500[e]	1300	600	$18\frac{2}{11}$	20	.....	.....	.....	.....
North Carolina																				
Wilmington	c	c	c	c	c	c	c	c	c	c	c	c	c	c	c	c	c	c	c	c
Ohio																				
Cincinnati	1800	.....	2300	.....	$27\frac{7}{9}$	.....	2300	.....	0	.....	1000	.....	1300	.....	30	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Cleveland	2300	1000	3000	1000	$30\frac{2}{9}$	0	.....	.....	.....	0	1800	550	2300	700	$27\frac{7}{9}$	$27\frac{3}{11}$	.....	.....	.....	.....
Columbus	1750	900	1750	900	0	0	1750	900	0	0	1400	500	1400	500	0	0	1400	500	0	0
Youngstown	1615	1015	1800	1200	$11\frac{147}{323}$	$18\frac{46}{253}$	2000	1200	$11\frac{1}{9}$	$15\frac{15}{16}$	915	465	1100	650	$20\frac{40}{183}$	$39\frac{23}{93}$	1200	750	$9\frac{1}{11}$	$15\frac{5}{13}$
Zanesville	1200	800	1400	950	$16\frac{2}{3}$	$18\frac{1}{2}$	1500	1100	$7\frac{1}{7}$	.....	650	400	700	500	$7\frac{9}{13}$	25	750	500	$7\frac{1}{7}$	0

Oklahoma																				
Oklahoma	1200	.....	1250	.....	$4\frac{1}{8}$	.....	1400	.....	12	.....	765	.....	810	.....	$5\frac{1}{17}$	.....	990	.....	$22\frac{2}{6}$	.....
Pennsylvania																				
Easton	1600	650	1500	700	—	$7\frac{9}{13}$	1624	780	.....	$11\frac{3}{7}$	900	425	1000	500	$11\frac{1}{6}$	$17\frac{11}{17}$	1045	500	$4\frac{1}{2}$	0
Erie	1800	700	1900	700	$5\frac{5}{6}$	0	*a*	*a*	*a*	*a*	850	400	930	450	$9\frac{7}{17}$	$12\frac{1}{2}$	*a*	*a*	*a*	*a*
Harrisburg	1400	750	2000	750	$42\frac{2}{3}$	0	2100	.....	5	.....	855	380	1000	475	17	25	1100	.....	10	.....
Hazelton	1200	500	1400	700	$16\frac{2}{3}$	40	1600	800	$14\frac{2}{7}$	$14\frac{2}{7}$	1000	400	1100	550	10	$37\frac{1}{2}$	1200	550	$9\frac{1}{11}$	0
Philadelphia	3300	700	3350	700	$1\frac{17}{33}$	0	.....	.....	.....	.....	1600	700	1650	700	$3\frac{1}{8}$	0	.....	.....	.....	.....
Scranton[f]	1800	1000	.....	.....	.....	.....	2150	1050	.....	.....	900	550	.....	.....	.....	.....	1050	600	.....	.....
Williamsport	1395	585	1590	630	14	$7\frac{9}{13}$	1657.50	697.50	$4\frac{39}{159}$	$10\frac{5}{7}$	675	360	765	450	$13\frac{1}{3}$	25	832.50	517.50	$8\frac{1}{17}$	15
Rhode Island											675									
Newport	2600	600	2700	600	$3\frac{11}{13}$	0	.....	.....	.....	.....	900	450	900	600	0	$33\frac{1}{3}$	.....	.....	.....	.....
Pawtucket	1500	1000	1914	1114	$27\frac{3}{5}$	$11\frac{2}{5}$	1914	1114	0	0	760	600	964	714	$26\frac{18}{19}$	19	964	714	0	0
Warwick	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	600	480	650	500	$8\frac{1}{3}$	$4\frac{1}{8}$	650	500	0	0
Tennessee																				
Memphis	1320	1020	1320	1020	0	0	1320	1020	0	0	900	600	900	600	0	0	900	600	0	0
Nashville {White	1700	900	1700	900	0	0	1700	900	0	0	800	400	850	450	$6\frac{1}{2}$	$12\frac{1}{2}$	850	450	0	0
Nashville {Colored	900	600	900	600	0	0	900	600	0	0	700	300	730	350	$4\frac{2}{7}$	$16\frac{2}{3}$	730	350	0	0
Texas																				
Fort Worth	1350	1000	.....	.....	.....	.....	1550	1000	.....	.....	810	450	.....	.....	.....	.....	900	540	.....	.....
Houston	1500	810	1500	810	0	0	1500	810	0	0	1200	405	1200	450	0	$11\frac{1}{9}$	1200	450	0	0
Waco	*d*	*d*	*d*	*d*	*d*	*d*	*d*	*d*	*d*	*d*	*d*	*d*	*d*	*d*	*d*	*d*	*d*	*d*	*d*	*d*
Virginia																				
Portsmouth	765	540	855	630	$11\frac{13}{17}$	$16\frac{2}{3}$	900	675	$5\frac{5}{19}$	$7\frac{1}{7}$	585	405	765	495	$30\frac{10}{13}$	$22\frac{2}{6}$	810	540	$5\frac{135}{153}$	$9\frac{1}{11}$
Richmond {White	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1400	700	.....	.....	.....	.....	875	530	.....	.....	1300	600	$48\frac{1}{7}$	$13\frac{1}{13}$
Richmond {Colored	.....	.....	800	460	.....	.....	900	500	$12\frac{1}{2}$	$8\frac{16}{28}$	.....	.....	670	340	.....	.....	800	360	$19\frac{27}{67}$	$5\frac{1}{17}$
Washington																				
Seattle	1800	1020	1800	1020	0	0	.....	.....	.....	.....	1440	840	1440	840	0	0	.....	.....	.....	.....
Spokane	1300	900	1400	1100	$7\frac{9}{13}$	$22\frac{2}{6}$	1600	1100	$14\frac{2}{7}$	0	1000	600	1110	700	10	$16\frac{2}{3}$	1150	750	$4\frac{6}{11}$	$7\frac{1}{7}$
Wisconsin																				
Milwaukee	2250	840	2250	840	0	0	2250	840	0	0	1080	540	1200	744[g]	$11\frac{1}{9}$	$37\frac{7}{9}$	1200	720[h]	0	—
Oshkosh	1200	725	1300	750	$8\frac{1}{3}$	$3\frac{13}{26}$	1400	825	$7\frac{8}{13}$	10	675	450[i]	750	500[j]	$11\frac{1}{3}$	$11\frac{1}{3}$	825	550[k]	10	10
Racine	1600	.....	1700	450	$6\frac{1}{4}$	.....	1750	600	$2\frac{119}{217}$	$33\frac{1}{3}$	1150	450	1200	500	.....	.....	1320	550	.....	.....
Sheboygan	1400	700	1450	700	$3\frac{1}{7}$	0	1550	700	$6\frac{26}{27}$	0	700	500[l]	800	500[l]	$14\frac{2}{7}$	0	900	550[m]	$12\frac{1}{2}$	10

[a] Probable salary.
[b] Does not include kindergarten assistants, who receive $50 less.
[c] No fixed schedule, but the working principle for classroom teachers.
[d] No fixed schedule, but the working principle for classroom teachers; heads of departments receive $2500.
[e] Not including substitute teachers, who received $50 less.
[f] The figures for Scranton include a $50 bonus during the war.
[g] Of this salary $144 is bonus.
[h] Of this salary $120 is *probable* bonus.
Not including kindergarten assistants, who receive $200.
[i] Not including kindergarten assistants, who receive $250.
[k] Not including kindergarten assistants, who receive $300.
[l] Not including kindergarten assistants, who receive $100 less.
[m] Not including kindergarten assistants, who receive $50 less.

a, Not determined.
b, Matter being considered by board of education.
c, On October 1, 1917, the salary of each teacher who received less than $65 per month was increased $5 per month.
d, An increase of $5 per month over 1915 schedule to all teachers since 1915.

APPENDIX VIII

SUMMARY OF REPORT ON SALARIES PAID TO TEACHERS IN 320 CITIES OF OVER 10,000 POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES

This report was made as a result of an investigation conducted by the National Education Association Commission on the National Emergency, Dr. George D. Strayer, chairman.

Kind of School	Salary Levels	Number of Teachers Employed at Each Level	Median Salary for Each Kind of School
*Elementary Schools	$ 300–$ 499	2785	$ 716.19
	500– 699	15219	
	700– 899	19807	
	900– 1099	11200	
	1100– 1299	8023	
	1300– 1499	1841	
	1500– 1699	96	
	1700– 1899	47	
	1900– 2099	1	
	2100– 2299	1	
	2300– 2499	.....	
	Over 2500	.....	
Total elementary	.....	59020	
*Intermediate schools (Junior high schools)	$ 300–$ 499	113	$ 799.42
	500– 699	562	
	700– 899	1218	
	900– 1099	1065	
	1100– 1299	597	
	1300– 1499	161	
	1500– 1699	38	
	1700– 1899	21	
	1900– 2099	2	
	2100– 2299	2	
	2300– 2500	.....	
	Over 2500	.....	
Total intermediate schools	.....	3779	
*High schools	$ 300–$ 499	33	$1149.50
	500– 699	305	
	700– 899	1852	
	900– 1099	2950	
	1100– 1299	2472	
	1300– 1499	2033	
	1500– 1699	2294	
	1700– 1899	1110	
	1900– 2099	338	
	2100– 2299	288	
	2300– 2499	152	
	Over 2500	149	
Total high schools	.....	13976	.....
Grand total	.....	76775	.....

*Salaries of principals or general supervisory officers are not recorded.

APPENDIX IX

INCREASE IN SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN CERTAIN CITIES; ALSO INCREASE IN WAGES OF EMPLOYÉS IN CERTAIN INDUSTRIES

It is interesting to note that in establishing salary schedules the "equal pay" principle has been recognized by the Hon. William G. McAdoo, director general of railroads of the United States, by the War Department and its ammunition factories, and by the National War Labor Board.

INCREASES IN TEACHERS' SALARIES

The committee has knowledge up to date of increases in salaries as follows: In New York City on January 1, 1912, the minimum salary was raised from $600 to $720; on January 1, 1918, the minimum was raise from $720 to $800; and it was proposed that from July 1, 1918, the minimum should be raised from $800 to $1000. This affects only 7000 of the 21,000 teachers and is unsatisfactory. The Board of Education, however, believes that this is the best use of the money available for 1918, because of the fact that the national government is offering $1000 to young women equipt as teachers are. Said Board has a committee working on a general upward revision of all salaries, which will probably call for a total increase of $4,000,000. The teachers, however, are demanding schedules more commensurate with the present cost of living, which schedules call for a total increase of approximately $12,000,000. Naturally the question arises, "Where is the money to come from?" The teachers are planning to appeal to the state legislature to amend the state education law by changing the tax rate for teachers' salaries in cities over 100,000 from 4.9 mills to 6 mills.

The County Council of London has voted a 50 per cent increase to teachers' salaries.

Fall River, Mass., has voted to increase the salary of every member of the teaching corps $100 per year, dating from May 20, 1918.

Rockford, Ill., has granted an annual increase of $100 from September 1, 1918, and is considering a proposal of a $50 bonus in addition.

Hoboken, N.J., has added $300 to the annual salary of its teachers.

Paterson, N.J., had added $200 to the annual salary of its teachers.

UNITED STATES STEEL GIVES LABOR A 15 PER CENT INCREASE

Two hundred thousand employes of the United States Steel Corporation were made happy by the announcement of a 15 per cent increase in wages effective April 15. The advance is in recognition of the increast cost of living.

It is estimated that the increase in wages just granted will cost the company yearly about $45,000,000. The annual report of the company shows a 1917 surplus of more than $52,000,000 and a total undivided surplus of $431,660,803.

Between the end of 1915 and the last quarter of 1917 the corporation raised the pay of its employes 60 per cent.

The corporation at the close of the year had 268,058 employes, compared with 252,668 at the close of 1916. During the year 11,486 employes entered the United States service.

STANDARD OIL RAISES WAGES THREE MILLIONS

An increase in wages averaging 10 per cent was made, applicable to all wage-earners except first-class bricklayers and watchmen, whose rates will be increast 5 per cent, and lead burners, whose rates previously had been raised.

All employes, without any contribution on their part, will be given individual life insurance policies with benefits ranging from a sum equal to three months' wages to $2000.

The old-age pension system now in vogue, where employes sixty-five years of age are provided for, has been amended so that an employe may retire at the end of twenty years of service on a pension.

President Teagle said that about 30,000 employes were affected by the wage increase, which totaled somewhat more than $3,000,000 a year. When he announced the wage increase he stated that since August 1, 1915, the Standard Oil Company has granted five general wage increases for all classes of labor, so that the average increase since that time has amounted to 62.8 per cent, while the rate for common labor had been increast 80.57 per cent in this period.

In addition to these increases a change from a nine- to an eight-hour day was made effective September 15, 1915. This was without any change in the scale of wages and was therefore equivalent to an increase in the wage scale of 19.37 per cent.

RAILROAD-WAGE INCREASES

General pay increases for nearly 2,000,000 railroad employes were announced by Director-General McAdoo.

Issuance of General Order No. 27 granted an increase of wages on the eight-hour-day basis to all employes. The increases will reach $300,000,000 a year.

The increases carry out almost entirely the recommendations of the Railroad Wage Commission. They become effective next Saturday and are retroactive to last January 1.

In the state legislature last April a bill was introduced providing a 20 per cent increase for all state employes receiving less than one thousand

($1000) dollars, and a 15 per cent increase for those receiving more than one thousand ($1000) dollars but less than two thousand ($2000) dollars. This would have cost $2,900,000, and because it was understood that this amount would be prohibitive the bill was past in an amended form, which provided for a 10 per cent or such lower increase of all salaries under fifteen hundred ($1500) dollars, so that the minimum of fifteen hundred ($1500) dollars might be made. This involved the expenditure of one million ($1,000,000) dollars.

PROPOSALS FOR INCREASE

The Board of Alderman of New York City on June 11, 1918, by a unanimous vote adopted a resolution providing for a 10 per cent increase to employes now receiving from $1000 to $2000 a year, and 20 per cent to those receiving $1000 or less.

The teachers of the state of New York thru the Teachers' Council and various teachers' organizations are asking for a minimum salary of one thousand ($1000) dollars with a maximum for teachers in the first six years of $2160, and for teachers in the seventh and eighth years of $2400. This would involve an additional expenditure of $12,000,750.

The Interborough Association of Women Teachers and some other associations are asking for a "war bonus" of $200 for every member of the teaching and supervising force, pending a general revision of teachers' salaries, to make them more nearly commensurate with the increast cost of living. During the last session of the New York state legislature two bills were introduced which did not become law, but which are indicative of the belief that salaries should be increast in proportion to their nearness to a "living wage." One of these provided that all city employes—New York City—whose salary is less and not more than twelve hundred ($1200) dollars shall be increast 20 per cent; those whose salary is twelve hundred ($1200) and not more than eighteen hundred ($1800) dollars shall be increast 15 per cent; those whose yearly salary is more than eighteen hundred ($1800) and not more than twenty-four hundred ($2400) dollars, shall be increast 10 per cent; those whose salary is more than twenty-four ($2400) hundred dollars shall be increast 5 per cent.

The other bill provided that all state employes whose annual salary is less and not more than $1080 shall be increast 20 per cent, those whose salary is less and not more than $1560 shall be increast 15 per cent, those whose salary is not more than $1800 shall be increast 10 per cent, and those whose salary is less and not more than $2040 shall be increast 50 per cent.

APPENDIX X

CHART SHOWING THE AMOUNT OF WEALTH FOR EACH TEACHER EMPLOYED IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS, 1916

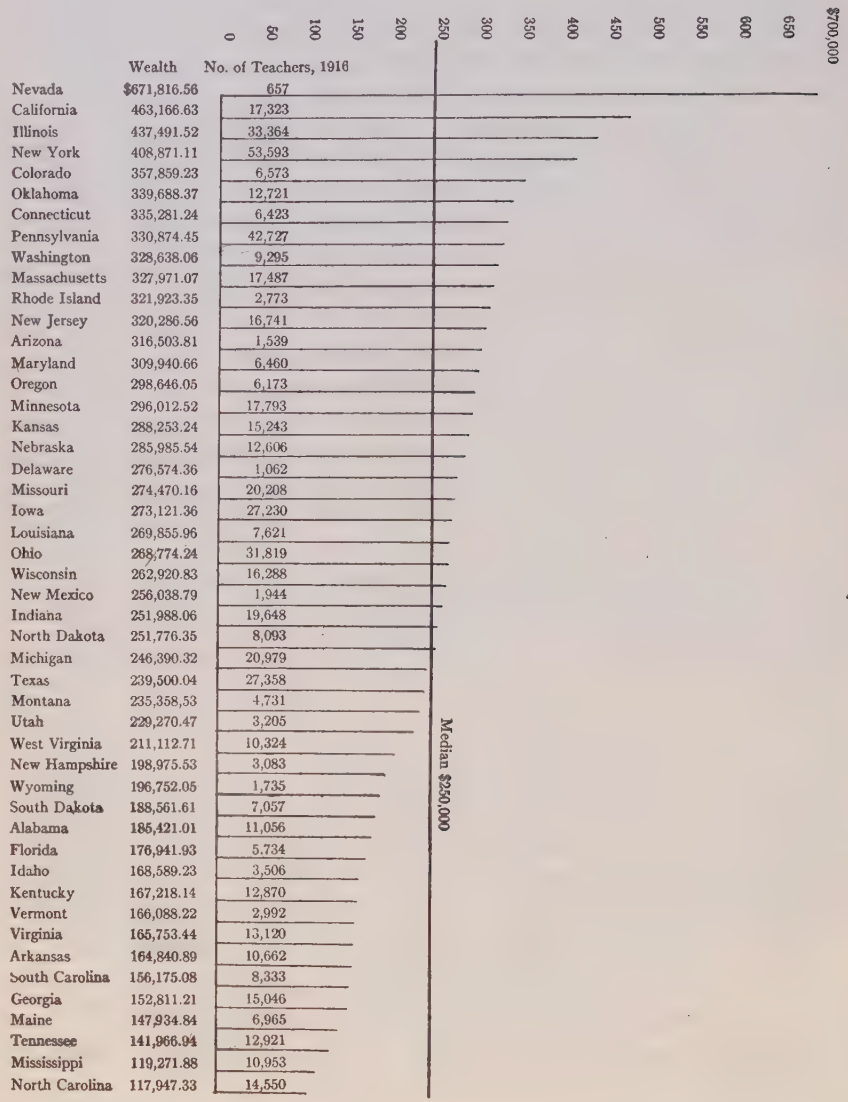
Average amount for each teacher for the United States is $280,754.08.

The wealth is based on the report of the Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, for 1912.

The number of teachers for 1916 is based on the *Report of the United States Commissioner of Education*, II, 76.

The calculations were made for the Commission on Emergency in Education by John A. H. Keitt, 1918. The chart was made by John W. Carr.

TABLE A



	Wealth	No. of Teachers, 1916
Nevada	$671,816.56	657
California	463,166.63	17,323
Illinois	437,491.52	33,364
New York	408,871.11	53,593
Colorado	357,859.23	6,573
Oklahoma	339,688.37	12,721
Connecticut	335,281.24	6,423
Pennsylvania	330,874.45	42,727
Washington	328,638.06	9,295
Massachusetts	327,971.07	17,487
Rhode Island	321,923.35	2,773
New Jersey	320,286.56	16,741
Arizona	316,503.81	1,539
Maryland	309,940.66	6,460
Oregon	298,646.05	6,173
Minnesota	296,012.52	17,793
Kansas	288,253.24	15,243
Nebraska	285,985.54	12,606
Delaware	276,574.36	1,062
Missouri	274,470.16	20,208
Iowa	273,121.36	27,230
Louisiana	269,855.96	7,621
Ohio	268,774.24	31,819
Wisconsin	262,920.83	16,288
New Mexico	256,038.79	1,944
Indiana	251,988.06	19,648
North Dakota	251,776.35	8,093
Michigan	246,390.32	20,979
Texas	239,500.04	27,358
Montana	235,358.53	4,731
Utah	229,270.47	3,205
West Virginia	211,112.71	10,324
New Hampshire	198,975.53	3,083
Wyoming	196,752.05	1,735
South Dakota	188,561.61	7,057
Alabama	185,421.01	11,056
Florida	176,941.93	5.734
Idaho	168,589.23	3,506
Kentucky	167,218.14	12,870
Vermont	166,088.22	2,992
Virginia	165,753.44	13,120
Arkansas	164,840.89	10,662
South Carolina	156,175.08	8,333
Georgia	152,811.21	15,046
Maine	147,934.84	6,965
Tennessee	141,966.94	12,921
Mississippi	119,271.88	10,953
North Carolina	117,947.33	14,550

APPENDIX XI

RELATION OF SALARIES TO EXPENSES OF 1504 ELEMENTARY TEACHERS IN TOWN AND CITY SCHOOLS OF MISSOURI (DECEMBER, 1917)[1]

The teachers of St. Louis, Kansas City, and St. Joseph are not included.

The facts brought out are based not upon theory but upon actual salary received and actual expenses incurred during the first three months of the school year 1917–18. A study of the items included under expenses will show that nothing has been included which is not actually essential to a teacher's welfare.

In considering the report that follows the following striking facts should be noted: 93 per cent stated that expenses would be greater in proportion during the remainder of the school term than during the first three months.

TOTAL SALARIES

Of all elementary teachers, 12.2 per cent receive *less than $360 per year;* 31.5 per cent receive less than $450 per year; 75.5 per cent receive less than $500 per year.

The foregoing are *annual salaries.* Usually paid for an eight- or nine-month school term, they must be divided by twelve to get the average monthly salary.

RELATION OF SALARIES TO EXPENSES

Of the teachers receiving $360 or less, 67 per cent *spend more than they earn in the schoolroom;* 58 per cent of those receiving $405 *spend more than they earn in the schoolroom;* 50 per cent of those receiving $550 or less *spend more than they earn in the schoolroom.*

The foregoing allows nothing for savings and little for professional growth. It covers bare living expenses.

Of all elementary teachers, 52.4 per cent receive less than $550 per year. These must supplement their earnings in the schoolroom.

The foregoing is true notwithstanding the fact that a large percentage of teachers live at home and by their own statements contribute nothing whatever to living expenses. In the teacher-training schools 62 per cent of all grade teachers are local and in the main live at home. The answers from many of these local teachers show that the salary from teaching would by no means support them were it not for the fact that room and board cost them nothing, being paid by their parents.

[1] Extract adapted from a pamphlet issued by the state superintendent, Uel W. Lampkin.

APPENDIX XII

THE WAR AND TEACHERS' SALARIES

(Prepared for the Commission by Dr. I. L. Kandel)

England and Wales

The problem of maintaining an adequate supply of elementary-school teachers was already becoming serious in England and Wales before the war; the outbreak of the war and its continued duration have only served to intensify the crisis. A large proportion of the men have joined the Army, and many women have been attracted to occupations which appear at once to be more obviously connected with the war activities and to offer higher remuneration than teaching. At the same time the war has imposed additional burdens, willingly assumed but none the less demanding sacrifices, on the teachers; these have taken the form of larger classes, extra work in the schools, voluntary war work of different kinds, and so on. Not the least of the hardships has been the depreciation of salaries due to the rising cost of living, which by 1917 had increast about 80 per cent above that of 1914. Education authorities were confronted with several problems—inability to retain teachers in the face of more attractive opportunities elsewhere, inability to secure an adequate supply of candidates ready to undertake several years of training at a time when remunerative occupations were open to them without training, and inability to find additional resources when the public purse was otherwise being drained to meet other demands.

The first response was to grant bonuses on salaries which never went beyond the annual addition of 10 per cent and rarely affected salaries above $1000 or $1250 a year. Such increases were of course quite incommensurate with the needs of the time, especially when skilled workmen could command as much as $75 a week, and boys still under eighteen about $15 a week for unskilled services. In only one important respect was the stringency relieved by a government prohibition against the increase of rents. The bonus system prevailed until about the middle of 1917, when the government came to the rescue with an addition to the educational budget of about $18,000,000, which was specially earmarkt for salaries. At the same time the Board of Education issued a minute recommending that the minimum salary for women teachers in elementary schools should be $450 and for men teachers $500. The effect of the additional government grant was to stimulate the establishment of new scales of salary.

In the meantime the government had appointed in June, 1917, a departmental committee to inquire into the principles which should determine the construction of scales of salary for teachers in elementary schools,

and another committee to make a similar inquiry into the salaries of secondary-school teachers. The first committee issued its report in February, 1918. The report[1] is based on three main principles:

1. That the "authorities in constructing a scale should aim at obtaining a constant supply of suitable recruits, at retaining them while other careers are still open to them, and at securing service of the desired quality from those who make teaching their life work."

2. That the scale "shall provide them with a reasonable assurance of a remuneration that will enable them to live appropriately without embarrassment, and that they may have a fair chance of advancement to posts of greater importance and emolument."

3. That the authorities "in framing their scales are taking part in the work of establishing the teaching service of the country on a basis conducive to the efficiency of the system of national education; they should proceed upon a common basis of principles."

The committee, while accepting the administrative advantages of a salary scale, recognized that special consideration must be given to rewarding teachers of exceptional ability, to dealing with teachers who drift into a rut, to withholding increments from those teachers who are reported to be inefficient. It further considered the question of equal pay for men and women, for which a strong agitation has been launcht by women teachers thruout the country. Finally some attention was given to removing some of the inequalities in salaries paid to teachers in rural and urban areas.

The chief principle adopted for the construction of salary scales was that a scale with smaller increments for the early years of service, followed by larger increments leading up to a salary adequate for increasing family responsibilities, and then with further prospects until retirement, is superior to a sharp, steep scale leading early up to a maximum, or a long and gradual scale which would not yield an adequate salary when responsibilities were greatest. For example, in the case of men certificated teachers, annual increments are suggested for not less than twelve years, followed by increments at intervals of not more than three years for a further period of about ten years; and for women certificated teachers, annual increments for not less than eight years, followed by increments at longer intervals as in the case of men. Uncertificated teachers should have a short scale covering a period of four to six years and not rising above the minimum for women certificated teachers, with discretionary increments in cases of individual merit. Owing to the opposition of the teaching body the committee was unable to recommend that increments should depend solely upon merit, and it suggests that increments be automatic except in the case of definite

[1] Report of the Departmental Committee for Inquiring into the Principles Which Should Determine the Construction of Scales of Salary for Teachers in Elementary Schools. Vol. I, *Report*, Cd. 8939; Vol. II, *Summaries of Evidence and Memoranda*, Cd. 8999.

default or wilful neglect, with additional rewards for exceptional merit. The committee was unable to accept the principle of equal pay for men and women, partly because a scale of salaries adequate for women is under present circumstances inadequate for men, and partly because it is essential to attract and retain suitable men in the profession. Accordingly it advocated the principle that the minimum salaries for both men and women should be approximately the same, but that the maximum for women should not be less than three-fourths of the maximum for men. With reference to rural and urban teachers the committee was of the opinion that service in the rural districts should be made financially attractive, and that accordingly salaries should be only a little lower than in urban areas. While the committee did not attempt to establish a national scale, it offered for consideration a number of illustrative scales and emphasized the importance of avoiding such diversity that the larger school systems would draw teachers away from the smaller.

The following illustrations of scale-making for certificated teachers were offered:

MEN

1. Minimum $500 rising by annual increments of $25 to $800 in the thirteenth year of service, and then by triennial increments of $50 to $950 in the twenty-second year of service.

2. Minimum $500 rising by annual increments of $25 to $700 in the ninth year of service, then by annual increments of $50 to $900 in the thirteenth year of service, and then by triennial increments of $50 to $1050 in the twenty-second year of service.

3. Minimum $500 rising by annual increments of $25 to $575 in the fourth year of service, then by annual increments of $50 to $1050 in the fourteenth year of service, and then by triennial increments of $50 to $1200 in the twenty-third year of service.

4. Minimum $500 rising by annual increments of $25 to $600 in the fifth year of service, then by annual increments of $50 to $1150 in the sixteenth year of service, and then by triennial increments.

5. Minimum $500 rising by annual increments of $50 to $1200 in the sixteenth year of service, and then by triennial increments of $100 to $1500 in the twenty-fifth year of service.

WOMEN

1. Minimum $450 rising by annual increments of $25 to $650 in the ninth year of service, and then by triennial increments of $50 to $750 in the thirteenth year of service.

2. Minimum $450 rising as in (1) to $650 in the ninth year of service, then by one increment to $700 in the tenth year of service, and then by triennial increments to $850 in the nineteenth year of service.

3. Minimum $450 rising by annual increments of $25 to $600 in the seventh year of service, then by annual increments of $50 to $750 in the tenth year of service, and then by triennial increments of $50 to $900 in the nineteenth year of service.

4. Minimum $450 rising by annual increments of $25 to $550 in the fifth year of service, then by annual increments of $50 to $850 in the eleventh year of service, and then by triennial increments of $50 to $1000 in the twentieth year of service.

5. Minimum $450 rising as in (4) to $550, then by annual increments of $50 to $900 in the twelfth year of service, and then by triennial increments of $100 to $1200 in the twenty-first year of service.

SCOTLAND

The effect of the war on the salaries of teachers in Scotland was similar to that in England and Wales, with similar attempts to meet the situation by the grant of bonuses. In July, 1917, the government appointed a Departmental Committee on the Remuneration of Teachers in Scotland, which considered and reported in November, 1917, on salaries in elementary and secondary schools and in training colleges. The general considerations determining the report of the committee was as follows:

> In considering the larger and more important part of our reference, viz., the suitable scales of salary for different classes of teachers, we desired to approach the question not solely, nor even mainly, as one involving the interests of a single profession, but as one vitally affecting the welfare of the whole community. That welfare must depend, in increasing measure, upon the efficiency of national education; and the fundamental requirement for securing this is that there should be an adequate supply of teachers of high capacity, proved aptitude, and thoro training. This cannot be attained unless the remuneration is such as to make the teaching profession one which may compete with other professions in securing recruits of sufficient capacity and in repaying these recruits for the time and labour spent in their special training. To attract such recruits it is necessary, not only that a fair salary should be offered to begin with, but—and it is an even more vital condition—that sufficiently attractive prospects should be opened to those who have served for a certain number of years.

Following this line of inquiry we come to the following general conclusions:

1. That not only as a temporary war measure, but as a permanent necessity in order to maintain an efficient teaching profession in the interests of the country, the general remuneration of teachers must be raised, and an equalization of the scale of salaries for similar classes of schools over the country is desirable.

2. That this cannot be attained by any continuation or extension of the bonus system.

3. That while an adequate initial salary must be provided, it is even of greater importance that improved prospects should be opened to those who attain a certain length of service and have proved their competency and their aptitude for the profession.

4. That the scale should take account of:

a) The length and character of the preliminary training.

b) Length of service.

c) The responsibility of the post held and its demands on the capacity and energy of a teacher.

The scales recommended by the committee are in every case higher than those prevailing at present and determined by local and accidental circumstances. While aware of the large increase of expenditure involved, the committee declares it to be its

firm and considered conviction, however, that the scheme . . . . cannot be attained except, first, by an extension of school areas, and, secondly, by a very large proportion of the additional amount required being provided by the central authority. . . . . Whatever the cost, if it is proved to be necessary for high educational efficiency, we cannot afford the ultimate extravagance which is involved in undue parsimony in such a case. It should not be overlookt that the aim of the proposed standard of salaries . . . . is not so much to improve the position and prospects of the teaching profession as to secure in the future, for the benefit of the state, an adequate supply of amply efficient recruits for our educational army.

APPENDIX XIII

TEACHERS' SALARIES[1]

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